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ABSTRACT

In the care, prevention, and treatment, of burnout, the reoccurring theme is "control and balance" between expectation and performance. Burnout is treatable and preventable, but changes and interventions must occur on all levels, (individual, organizational, and societal). Recent research, which has expanded the already complex definition of burnout, indicates that the problem of burnout is more widespread than originally thought. Successful management of stress and burnout is seen to be a key element in continuing the survival of the human race. This review of studies traces the history of stress and burnout, their sources, symptoms, treatment, and prevention. The studies cover several different working environments, including: (1) education; (2) medicine; (3) dentistry; (4) social services; (5) law; (6) law enforcement; (7) ministry; (8) accounting; and (9) business. Each study was conducted by different authors. A review of the research indicates a need to explore burnout in more work settings, a need for research about the relationships of stressors and burnout, and the costs that relate to each. It is hoped that within the next decade burnout will be recognized and defined universally, and that research will have provided society with cost-effective intervention programs that focus on the identification and prevention of burnout, and human resource management. (301 references) (LAP)

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Stress and Burnout: An Organizational Synthesis

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Introduction

Modern American Society is in the grips of an insidious malady called "Burnout." Billions of dollars are being lost in our economy due to workers not performing at adequate levels because they cannot successfully cope with the pressures of the workplace (Riggar, 1985). Very valuable human resource capital is being lost as the individuals personally suffer the tragic loss of commitment, self esteem, confidence, and productivity. Stress related disorders have become "the number one social and health problem (Pelletier, 1977, p.6)." Fifty to eighty percent of all diseases are attributed to psychosomatic or stress - related origins and millions of our citizens are suffering from hypertension - a known killer in our society (Pelletier, 1977). "Why, as a nation do we seem, both collectively and individually, to be in the throes of a fast-spreading phenomenon, burnout (Freudenberger and Richelson, 1980, p.3)?"

Coming out of the industrial age, we now live in an age of technology in which the pace of all human activity has dramatically increased - all, except the rate of the human heartbeat. A little more than a century earlier, it took several weeks for the nation to tally the votes and inform

the populace that Abraham Lincoln was our sixteenth president. Today, the computers tell us the name of our next president, before the polls close on the west coast. Overnight mail is no longer quick enough. We "Fax" documents around the world in seconds. The rate of technology development and access to information is accelerating so quickly, that as Alvin Toffler (1970) suggested, we no longer have to cope with change, we have to cope with the change in the rate of change.

Lewis Carroll (1960) wrote in Through the Looking Glass, "It takes all the running you can do to keep in the same place. If you want to go somewhere else, you must run twice as fast (p.145)."

When those words were written, it was to describe a fantasy world. That fantasy world has become reality today. The quicken pace of change with the explosion of information processing and dissemination, has created a dilemma in our society's time orientation. We can accomplish tasks quicker, but we have expanded our expectation of accomplishment to the point that excessive pressures are being placed on the individual and their tasks are either poorly done or not completed. The process is taking a heavy toll on the quality of production.

Often, people are inundated by information from mass media with too many choices (Davidson, 1989). To meet the

demands we place on ourselves and others, we are pushing ourselves, but we are not making choices which are worthy of our time (Davidson, 1989). We have no time to carefully consider our choices. Behind one set of hasty, poorly considered decisions, comes another set with greater demands and less time. Once we reach a goal, without pause or celebration, we must immediately seek the next goal. "We run so fast, but we can't enjoy it when we get there (Hall, and Wessel 1990, P.35R)."

"The pace of change today throws us into a time warp of confusion, and anxiety. When everything changes so quickly, our old models for dealing with the world don't work. Worse, we don't have time to create new ones to take their place (Hall, and Wessel, 1990, p.35R). What is not being realized is that we all have limitations, and the rate of changes is exceeding those limitations. Trying to cope with this rapidly moving world, we experience exhaustion, frustration, and withdrawal (Davidson, 1989).

In today's society, our hard won benefits and solutions have created new problems. Not only has the pace of this "golden life" quickened, we have more time to spend on ourselves. We have more leisure time to ponder our existence and fate. We no longer work to survive, but to provide meaning in our lives. Our life spans have increased dramatically as have our expectations of ourselves, and our

social, economic, and political institutions (Golembiewski, & Munzenrider, 1988, p.9). We can expect to live beyond seventy years and accordingly expect ourselves and our organizations to continually improve through those years. Not long ago in history, 40 years was considered a ripe old age. Now, life really is just beginning at 40. Where we and our organizations have not physically changed, our expectations have. As we reap the fruits of this "great society," we also harvest incredible pressures to progress further. The time at work may have decreased proportionately to earlier times, but work, in reality, presents new problems, perceived deprivations, frustrations, and pressures which negatively affect ones self-esteem and well-being (Pierce, 1982). The price of modern society has been great on both the persons and institutions. We live in a world of rapid change, and change may be very stressful (Pierce, 1982). As we have cured old maladies, we have found or created new ones, namely stress and burnout.

"Stress" and "burnout" have become everyday terms to most people today (Pierce,1982). Thousands of articles have been written on the subjects during the last twenty years. Stress and burnout have become major research topics of the behavior sciences, and burnout may have become "the topic" (Golembiewski, & Munzenrider, 1988, p.11). Yet, as we are just becoming aware of the multiple expressions of burnout,

data suggest that it has been with us for a long time (Golemblewski, & Munzenrider, 1988, p.7).

Stress became a frequent research topic in the 1930's (Robertson, 1988) and burnout, although not labeled, was a concern of many athletes and performing artists (Paine, 1982). The National Education Association, in 1931, began to publish case studies on teachers and stress (Robertson, 1988).

Although stress was becoming a well accepted phenomenon, little was written about burnout up through the 1960's. However, the legacy of the 1960's asserted that work should be meaningful. Meaning was a new worker right which would find resistance in the traditional, segregated, professional and personal work ethic (Paine, 1982). People were becoming aware of the workplace as something more then just a place to put in time. Workers began to expect more than a paycheck. Conflict was developing between old ways and new ideas, and the resulting pressure was taking a visible toll on the worker.

Finally, in the late 1970's, burnout began to appear in professional and lay literature (Awalt, 1988). Before this time, almost nothing was known about the burnout phenomenon. Research was non existent, very few words had been written (Maslach, 1982). Christina Maslach tested a few notions in the mid-seventies and discovered from conferences that

burnout was a concern of many people (Maslach, 1982). Her work, along with the work of Herbert Freundenberger led to the first national conference on burnout in Philadelphia during November, 1981 (Paine, 1982). Wil Clouse and Katherine Whitaker (1981) had developed an inventory to study career burnout and had initiated their own research on the phenomenon.

Almost overnight, burnout exploded into the public conscience. Burnout was regarded as the "crisis of the eightles" and "the disease of modern life. Burnout was being discovered so frequently that it became faddish (Awalt, 1988). The phenomenon, although originally regarded as a workplace concern for human services professions, was being found in virtually every type of work explored, even among homemakers (Belle, 1990). Burnout became a buzzword of the decade.

Because burnout was considered "faddish," it became difficult for some professionals to admit to such a phenomenon (Awalt, 1988). Some researchers regarded burnout as nothing more than pop psychology. Many authors, such as Kutash and Schlesinger (1980) were writing comprehensive authoritative handbooks on stress and anxiety, but did not contain reference to the burnout stress syndrome, nor list any of the burnout researchers. It was suggested that burnout would probably cease to exist as a separate research

area and be incorporated into the larger study of stress (Paine, 1982.) Some suggested we were overemphasizing the extent of burnout.

> The pervasiveness of burnout is unclear. The reader of the mainstream literature could be forgiven from assuming from its tone, that all social workers and the like are on the path to chronic stress and the inevitable burnout ... but few studies provide a sense of perspective on the incidence of burnout, and those that do show that it is confined to a modest proportion, 11 percent or less (Fineman, 1985, P. 153).

However, the skeptics did have to recognize that the research was placing a focus on a process which was incurring significant human and organizational costs.

The term "burnout" may have been a bit too provocative, may have become a bit shop worn, and the victim of too much hype in the media. On the other hand, the voluminous research during the 1980's showed burnout was not just an empty topic (Golembiewski and Munzenrider,1988), but was an issue for everyone. There were real problems in the workplace. We may have become burned out on burnout, but modern society had to come to terms with the plight which the times presented. As suggested by Farber (1983), the many volumes of research and descriptions established burnout as an authentic problem, and has become an integral part of our society's self image. The early rush of research had not diminished the boomtown atmosphere associated with the study of burnout (Kilpatrick, 1984).

"If anything, the volume of research has heightened the sense of urgency in coping with the problem (Golembiewski, & Munzenrider, 1988, p.12)."

Although the research on burnout during the eighties was predominately exploratory and descriptive, burnout progressed from a lack of description to multiple definitions and expressions. The instruments and methodologies of investigation were being validated and used for a myriad of work situations. The study of burnout was validated as a serious endeavor. The phenomenon, regardless of its name, was being accepted as a real psychological problem. The new buzz word became "attitude". Burnout was being viewed as a negative attitude change in the individual.

Today, everyone has a general sense of what burnout is and is not. A specific definition still eludes us, just as the mysterious "24 hour bug." which befalls many of us during the winter. However, several important characteristics are known about burnout. Burnout has been found in many different work settings. Burnout may be manifested through varying combinations of causes, symptoms, phases, and expressions. However, burnout can be avoided, treated, and eliminated. Individuals and organizations can be, or are, burned out.

Just as the existence of stress has been supported by conclusive empirical data, research has established the validity of an unique work-related stress response, burnout.

Stress

Although stress leaped into prominence only recently (Paine, 1988), it dates back to the beginning of human history. Prehistoric man faced daily threats to their survival. Primitive societies acknowledged stress as they used a variety of ceremonies, devices, drugs, and bandages to frighten away or expel demons (Greenwood and Greenwood, 1979). Hippocrates recognized stress and its relationship to disease. Flogging was used up through the middle ages to drive the demons out of a distraught person (Selye, 1976). Bloodletting was practiced for a number of diseases including melancholy. Medieval physicians induced high fevers, prescribed repeated dunkings in cold water, and practiced shock therapy to relieve stress stricken patients (Greenwood and Greenwood, 1979).

Stress came out of the dark ages during the second half of the nineteenth century through the studies of Claude Bernard, a French physiologist. He asserted an organism's condition for a free and independent life required the internal environment of a living organism to remain fairly constant, in spite of changes in the external environment

(Selye, 1975). Bernard theorized the state of an organism's systems in response to its environment could create illness (Selye, 1976).

Modern stress research began in the 1930's, when scientists tried to determine the characteristics in people which caused events, such as heart attacks (Muse, 1980). Walter B. Cannon (1939), a Harvard University physiologist, studying the stress effects of cold, and lack of oxygen on the human body, stated an organism needed a steady state in order to maintain a healthy life . He called the body's staying power, or self-regulation, "homeostasis". Cannon suggested that humans responded to stressful events in physical and psychological ways that either prepared them to "fight or flight" (Cannon, 1939). Disease was much more than an act of suffering, it was the body's fight to maintain a homeostatic equilibrium in response to pressure or pressures (Selye, 1976). Canon concluded that stresses could be withstood, but continued high levels of stress over a prolonged period of time would disrupt the body's homeostasis, and could lead to the breakdown of the human biological systems (Hobfoll, 1988).

In the 1930's, Hans Selye (1976), intrigued by Canon's theory of homeostasis, studied the nature of disease through the responses among rats to various noxious stimuli. In 1936, he published his stress syndrome theory which

identified a uniform response in his subjects (Robertson, 1988).

According to Selye (1975), stress is "the non-specific response of the body to any demand (p.4)." "It is the "rate of wear and tear on the body... a state manifested by a specific syndrome which consists of all the non-specifically individual changes within the biological system (Selye, 1975, p.4)." He stated that stress is inherent in every aspect of life itself. Stress cannot be avoided, except in death. Every event, including a non-event, in one's experience creates a stimulus which is called a "stressor" to which our being reacts.

The stress response is a biological state which causes specific changes in the body; i.e., heart rate, stomach acid production. The response may be caused by many different incidence and affects all parts of the body. Selye observed, although the individual stressors were different, the biological responses to stressors were the same. An organism would go through three stages of response when confronted with a stressor (Robertson, 1988).

The General Adaptation Syndrome (Selye, 1976), later called the stress syndrome, included the general alarm phase, the resistance phase, and the exhaustion phase. When the body experiences a stressor, it goes into the general alarm state which is the call to mobilize all the defensive

forces of the organism and fight. The body goes automatically into an intense excited state which includes an adrenalin discharge and increased heart rate. The body can tolerate only a brief alarm stage. If the intense state of excitability persists too long, the organism may go into shock and die.

The resistance stage is the body attempting to bring the body back to a state of "homeostasis". Resistance is like fighting a battle -the attack of the enemy has been sounded and the body employs its troops to overcome the adversary. The body calls on its reserves to implement coping strategies and eliminate, adapt to, or reduce the stressor to a tolerable level. This second line of defense is the body's attempt to correct or minimize the disturbance to its equilibrium.

The exhaustion stage is a period of rest which enables the body to repair and restore itself to as near to the original homeostasis as possible. The body must have time to replenish its reserves. "Prolonged or severe exposure to stress uses up the adaptability reserve (Pierce, 1982, p.16)." If the reserve cannot be replaced by rest, dysfunction and death may result.

The human immune system is a good example of the general adaptation syndrome. When a foreign body, an antigen, enters the body, leucocytes, white blood cells of

the lymphatic and circulatory systems, immediately attack and try to engulf the antigen. The second line of defense, antibodies are produced by the body to lock onto the antigen and render it ineffective. Fever may result as the body increases it metabolic activity to fight the intruder. After disarming the antigen, the body must rest and proceeds to repair, if possible, the damage done and return to homeostasis.

Not all stress is bad. In fact, there are two kinds of stress, "eustress" and "distress" (Selye, 1976). Eustress is positive stress which improves the well-being of the body. It is the curative, pleasant, and healing stimuli experienced. It is the stimulus which leads the body to greater strength and endurance. The elimination of the alarm/resistance adaptive response to stress would be to "eliminate growth, maturation, and self development (Robertson, 1988, p.15)." As Jameson (1980) stated:

> A little stress is vital to prevent boredom and to keep the system functioning at peak efficiency. A watch with no tension on the mainspring doesn't run. The same is true for humans. Too much stress, though, can be like overwinding a watch: the spring will snap when the tension becomes unbearable (p.19).

Eustress is the stress which promotes the continuance of certain beneficial behavior. Distress is negative or unpleasant stress. Distress may cause disease and a breakdown in the biological system. It is the distructive wearing away of the resources of the body. Rather than

promoting the well being of the individual, distress promotes malfunctions.

Although not all stress is detrimental, society most commonly associates the word "stress" with "distress," and stress is used often as a misnomer for distress (Organ, 1979). In this paper, stress and distress will be used interchangeably.

Although Selye's definition was very narrow and limited (Robertson, 1988), he pioneered the study of stress from the physiological viewpoint (Pierce, 1982).

> Selye's Stress Syndrome theory provided the frame work for much of the research in the last 50 years. Since his original work, other researchers have identified stressors within the individual, as well as in the environment, and discovered a variety of adaptive responses (Robertson, 1988, P. 11).

Researchers took Selye's physiological model and placed focus on social and environmental factors. McGrath defined stress as a "substantial imbalance between environmental demand and the response capability of an organism (1970, p.17)." He suggested it is a process between objective demands and objective responses, but also between the subjective perspectives and the stimuli. He asserted stress is of no consequence unless there is a failure to cope with the stressor. It is the perceptive response of the individual which causes stress: stress is not a factor, unless the response is important to the recipient. Stress

is the "anticipation of the inability to respond adequately to a perceived demand, accompanied by the anticipation of consequences for inadequate response (McGrath, 1970, p.33)." McGrath (1970) used the concepts of "demand" and "load". Demand overload was when the demand was greater than the individual's capability due to the overtaxing of resources at any time. He suggested that demand less than capability could cause stress through boredom, just as overtaxing, and could create a decline in function. Selye also identified dissatisfaction with life and more specifically "disrespect for their own accomplishments (1975, p.75)" as a major source of stress.

Dunlap (1981) related Selye's stress syndrome to changes brought about by the person. He believed events and perceptions of events are factors for stress and burnout (Allen, 1982). The interpretation and processing of the stress inside the individual may be more stress producing than the original stimulus. Organ (1979. P.34), expanded Selye's definition by defining psychological stress. It is "the common denominator of all adaptive reactions by the body to the demands placed on it which evolve response - such demands as anxiety, frustration, fear, threat, and avoidance produce stress (Organ, 1979, p.34)." Psychological stress is important because it can produce

additional and unnecessary stress and deplete the body's needed resources (Robertson, 1988).

Kremmer and Owen described stress as "a complex state transcending the usual mind-body dichotomy and requiring a reference to holistic frames (1979, p.40)." Howard Kaplan (1983) stated stress is the subject's inability to forestall or diminish a perception, recall, anticipation, or imagination of a negative influence. Focusing on an individual's inability to decrease the perception of the negative influence, Kaplan suggested the internal processing of the experience moved the individual farther away from the desired state than the event itself.

Some researchers began to focus on the relationship between the person and the environment. The Person-Environment Fit Model, suggested by Cobb in Hobfoll (1988), proposed stress was the lack of fit between the characteristics of the individual and those of the environment. The objective and subjective aspects of the characteristics were both important considerations. If the fit was good, stress would be minimized and personality growth and self- esteem would be enhanced. If the fit was not good, increased stress and negative effects on the individuals were the result. Coping characteristics of individuals were related with their resources (Hobfoll (1988).

The concept of resources and their loss by the person became a common theme among researchers who studied the person-environment relationship. Maslow (1954) included the concept of resources in his hierarchy of needs. He stated if we are freed from the fear of a drain on our resources. we can move toward self-actualization. Freed from the loss. or fear of loss. of our resources, we can focus on the more satisfying things in the human experience.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) presented their model of conservation which was concerned with loss and resources in relationship to stress. The major tenants of their model were:

1. Loss is central to stress.
2. People have a primary concern with their possessed resources.
3. People measure the environment in relationship to their resources and develop a conservation process of their resources
4. People expect a net gain of resources from an investment of their resources.
5. Stressful situations tend to create further additional loss because of the loss resulting from diminishing resources.

   And

6. Behavior continues to be affected by the loss until the individuals perceive themselves in a net gain situation.

Steven Hobfoll (1988), described stress as "the state in which individuals judge the response capabilities as unable to meet the threat of losing the desired experiential

state dictated by their base of values and expectations (p.19)." His models of the conservation of resources and economic congruence considered stress as a reaction to the environment in which there is a real or perceived threat, and a loss of resources (Hobfoll, 1988). There is a loss of resources or the lack of gain in resources following an investment (a loss) of resources. Resources are those conditions valued by the individual; or the means to obtain these resources, values, conditions, or energies. The fit of demand with the availability of resources will affect the strain placed on the individual - it will increase, reduce, or have no effect - based on values formed by family, cultural or environmental constraints. The strain produced is related also to the degree of perception that a threat will affect the usability and availability of resources by the individual in a situation. Stress is narcissistic because it depends on our perception of what is or will happen.

The implications of Hobfoll's (1988) model of economic congruence and the person environment fit model were:

1. Resources interact in very complex ways, facilitating one, debilitating one, to interfering with one another.

2. Resources may have innate properties of strength which have various fits with different demands- some resources are robust, while others are not very effective.

3. People will react to strains that are the product of the demand and the individual's weaknesses.

4. The strain will vary to the internal needs of the individual and the properties of the event, which is a function of time.

5. Individual values determine, to a large part, what people view as stressful and what resources may be successfully used to counteract the stress.

6.) Perceptions are seen as important in determining the strengths of resources and the extent of loss (p.223).

Hobfoll (1988) asserted needs, resources, demands, strains, and the time dimension of the economic congruence model are active components of stress.

Hobfoll (1988) admitted to no single definition of stress, because stress is one of the most complicated phenomenons which involves all systems of the human body and the world in which it is situated. He asserted that stress is the pressure to perform tasks in response to the actions of events in the environment with the psychological and physical self (Hofoll, 1988).

Gmelch (1977) provided us with the most concise definition of stress. Stress is "any action or situation that places physical or psychological demand on people (p.7)." My definition: stress is the awareness of any stimulus.

Stress Factors

Stress can be started by any of a large number of stimuli, from small daily hassles to the threat of a major crisis (Hobfoll, 1988). We may be devastated by a catastrophe or slowly "put to death by thumb tack wounds." Everything causes stress. Stress occurs in all social systems: personal, interpersonal, small groups, large organizations, and societies.

Stressors can be either personal or environmental (Goodall and Brown, 1980). Stress may occur inside the person based on their values, attitude, beliefs, and self concept. Internal stressors may include excessive self-involvement, excessive self abatement, level of flexibility, and relationships with the professional or personal self (Schneider, 1977). Demands from other individuals, organizations, situations, or cultures may also affect the well-being of the person. Both internal and external factors may create frictional discrepancies between performance and expectation to deplete the resources of the person.

The three types of stress are physiological, psychological, and environmental (Pierce,1988). Maslach (1982) categorized stress into three areas: personal, interpersonal, and organizational. Reed (1984)) split the organizational category into institutional and societal.

The physiological involves some type of injury, or threat of injury, to one's physical well-being (Pierce, 1982). For example, the reaction to an attack by a vicious dog, a burglar pointing a gun, or being caught on the tenth floor of a hotel fire may create anxiety in, and injury to, the person.

Psychological stressors involve the cognitive, emotional, and unconscious domains of the psyche. They originate within the individual involving the person's attitudes, feelings, values, habits, and thoughts. They involve love, hate, prejudice, bias, attachments, competition, and achievements (Hobfoll, 1988). "Psychological stressors can cause the same behavior and physiological responses by the organism as physiological or environmental stressors (Robertson, 1988, p.12)." Lazarus (1979) stated that psychological stress resides neither in the situation nor in the individual, it results from a transaction between the two. Goodall and Brown (1980) suggested that stress may come from such sources as threat to ego, the fear of being disliked ot misunderstood, fear of being inadequate or disapproved, fear of losing power, prestige, or love, and all other threats to emotional safety. People also become upset with the trivialities of their lives because the trivialities represent important elements of their existence (Awalt, 1988). Psychostressors may be also anxious/reactive behaviors (Girdano and Everly,

1974). The anxiety/reactive individual goes far beyond the normal anxious response to a threat to well being. The focus is directed to the worst case scenario which intensifies the stress reaction.

Environmental stressors are the pressures over which the body has the least control (Robertson, 1988). They can produce some of the most painful, disabling distress (Pelletier, 1977). Schneider (1987) listed external stressors as the structure of programs, the nature of tasks, changes in relationships, and working conditions. Goodall and Brown (1980) identified the lack of privacy, overcrowded conditions, and numerous social conditions as environmental stressors. The individual's relationship with the world around and all of its components creates a tension to respond.

Because the dynamic equilibrium of the body is key to the well being of the individual, change is a major stress factor. Event changes cause stress. A person who is confronted with too much change or change which cannot be tolerated or comprehended, is subject to sensory overload (Sylvester, 1977). The human being can tolerate only a limited amount of rapid change (Toffler 1970). The sensory overload may tax the systems of the person to the point of producing illness. Holmes and Rahe (1967) studied change and its relationship to stress. They developed a rating

scale to measure the stress of changes in life and discovered interesting comparisons. The researchers discovered that certain events were positive stressors for certain people and negative stressors for others. Although change is a fact of life, it does create stress.

Time is also a stress producing factor. Hobfoll (1988) stated time is a too often ignored item in the study of stress. As events happen at different times in an individual's life, one's demands and resources are different, and thus, the stress realized will be different. Moreover, after a stressful event occurs, demands on resources change. How long the stress persists, how much time exists before a deadline, and how rapid is the rate of change all play a major role in the adaptive abilities of the body. As Toffler suggested (1970), we must not only learn how to cope with change, but we must develop coping strategies to deal with the increasing rate of change.

In relationships; role conflict, lack of perceived authority, lack of decision making participation, inability to meet expectations, all contribute to stress. On the job, certain condtions may contribute to stress. Less publicized but important stressors include boredom, environmental factors of the white collar job, sense of being confined to a job, inadequate career development practices or a lack of advancement opportunities.

Discrimination causes stress. Kinzer (1979) noted that women at the U.S. Naval Academy experienced stress from being a minority. Maslach (1982) noted that blacks experienced less stress from discrimination because they had built coping skills from dealing with discrimination for many decades.

Organizations can experience stress just as individuals. The group think of an organization can develop a collective behavior which is separate from the individual participants. In organizations, the whole may be come greater and different than the sum of its parts. The stress of individuals in an organization are magnified when viewed collectively. The collective effects are also greater - it is the difference between having a glass playing marble dropped on your head, or having 1,000 marbles dropped. A mob of people assumes stronger and different characteristics than each of its individuals members. It also happens that way for stress in organizations.

Today's society has created very high expectations of its citizens. Trying to live up to those expectations can be highly stress inducing. Today's world is wrought with conflicting values, and those conflicting values create confusion and stress (Muse,1980). Social, political, economic, intellectual, and professional trends have

combined to increase stress and decrease alternatives (Paine, 1982).

Stress Response

Pines, Aronson, and Kafry (1981) describe stress as being mutable or immutable, continuous or intermittent. These features influence the viability of various coping strategies. The stress response is the organism's built-in survival mechanism. It is one of the body's most sensitive and vital (Pierce, 1982). It is "an essential psychophysical process which enables individuals to respond to the multitude of challenges confronted every day (Pelletier, 1977, p.69)." Stress can be regarded as "a response to pressure, responsibilities, and real and imaginary threats from the environment (Parrino, 1979)." The stress response initiates a series of immediate defensive reactions, followed by a pleiotropic series of responses, longer and more subtle, by the body which may be to eliminate, reduce, or adapt to the stressors. Parrino continued by stating the stress response "engages the entire system, body and mind, and it is manifested in thoughts, biochemical and physiological reactions, and behaviors all working together to produce an effective response strategy (Pierce, 1982, p.11). If the stressors are too strong in number or magnitude the organism may be destroyed before it can respond. However, the long term accumulation of

combatable stressors may cause physical or emotional damage to the individual according to the body's contemporary ability to repel, repair, and cope. The coping mechanism itself may be detrimental to the long term well being of the individual. For example, insanity is a way to cope with the pressures of the world, but the altered perception may create greater jeopardy for the individual - crazy street people are often robbed and killed by muggers or frozen from the cold.

Physiological responses to stress involves all the biochemical actions of the body - metabolic, cardiovascular, neurological, and muscular. Responses may include a rise in the body's cholesterol level, excessive glandular secretions, overproduction of digestive juices, and increased blood pressure. One may note the outward signs through dilation of the pupils, increased heart rate, perspiration, increased rate and depth of breathing, and expressions of pain. Prolonged stress will lower resistance and wear the body out because generalized prolonged and unabated stress places a person's body into a state of disequilibrium, increasing the susceptibility to a number of diseases and disorders.

Harold G. Wolff (1953), a physician who studied the effects of stress on various parts of the body, provided conclusive evidence that stress is a major cause of most

illnesses. Pelletier (1977) suggested the biochemical changes of the stress response may become detrimental to an individual's health." The body responds to stress with its biochemical chain reaction of the brain and the glands. The body's response to excessive stress or stress over a prolonged period of time is physical or emotion illness or both (Reed, 1984)." Stress has been linked to both physical and psychological ills (Kendall, 1987 and Skzyck, 1989). "Some physicians have stated that 80% of all diseases are caused by the bodies attempt to maintain itself in a state of equilibrium ,rather than a continuous state of alarm (Reed, 1984, p.34)." Stress has been linked to skin diseases (Solomon, 1989), fatigue (Lewis, 1987), mental stress and coronary disease (Scott, 1988), and even low sperm count in men (McCarthy, 1987). There is evidence that stress may turn genes on and off within the individual causing health problems (Thompson, 1989). Accordingly, certain forms of cancer may be activated from stress due to irregular genetic and cellular behavior - aging and memory may even be affected.

Psychologically, Gmelch (1977) suggested the body responds to stress four ways: Fight, flight, freeze, or learn. When one encounters a stressor, the body proceeds to respond through a series of physiological changes to enable the individual to combat or escape (Robertson, 1988).

The "fight" response (Gmelch, 1979, p.9) is evoked in an adversative situation. It is a power based response in a win-lose confrontation where winning is of supreme importance. The syndrome causes several changes in the body.

If the body has the resources and can overcome the stressor quickly and with minimum depletion of, or damage to, the individual's resources and faculties, the response is beneficial. However, the fight response may cause a tremendous drain on the body, and leave the individual more vulnerable to future attacks which could otherwise be tolerated. The body may overcome the stressor, but the damage to body may not be repairable and homeostatsis restorable.

The "Flight" response (Gmelch, 1979 p.10), is the avoidance of the stressor. Visualized physically as running away from the threat, psychologically, it is the rationalizing away the problem in order to not deal with it, fantasizing, or actually withdrawing from an unpleasant situation (Thomas, 1983, p.19). Flight allows the individual to block out more stress than can be tolerated. It may be a good buffering agent in some situations, but flight may just cause delay and intensify the stress because it would have been better to immediately deal with the event.

"When fight or flight are not acceptable responses, the individual is left in a state of tension - the individual has no respite from a state of excitation without abatement. The attempt to repress this excitation is itself a major contribution to stress disorders (Pelletier, 1977, p.107)." Our complex society holds on to a code of behavior which makes fight or flight not acceptable responses to stress - so the body enters a state of stress preparedness where there is often no outlet. "The distress is internalized, the negative psychological state continues, and the physiological stress response is prolonged (Pierce, 1982, p.16)."

The "freeze" (Gmelch, 1979, p.10-12) response is the inability to take any specific action. It is mental paralysis usually in anticipation of an event. It is being speechless at a speaking engagement, the mind becoming blank before a test (Thomas, 1983, p.20), it is waking in your tent to find a bear sniffing you face. The anticipation of stress may cause the freeze response, such as standing at the top of a high dive platform. The freeze response is a temporary solution which requires a follow-up form of action. To remain in a freeze position keeps the body in a static state of alarm and places the body vulnerable to shock and possible destruction.

Besides the coping mechanisms of "fight, flight, and freeze" humans have the "learn" response (Gmelch, 1977) . The learning response, unlike the other responses, is not a temporary measure. It is preventative, rather than remedial (Thomas, 1983). One may overcome stress in an effective and constructive fashion. "It is the thoughtful analysis and examination of methods to deal with a problem (Reed, 1984 p.33)." Learning is the synthesizing of coping strategies from a battery of resources which may be used in the future to prevent the reoccurrence of the negative aspects of the stressor and may initiate opportunity for self improvement. Learning helps the individual to reduce stress in their lives by being able to control the situation effectively. Being able to understand the stress, its sources and effects, and the successes of various actions over stress enriches the quality of life's experience. The learning response creates attitudes and behavior for managing stress, and having a more satisfying life. However, those who do not learn "how to cope" constructively, or change behaviors to combat stress, frequently move into the final stages of stress known as burnout.

Some stress strengthens the individual and improves alertness, awareness and concentration, and may actually contribute to peak performance (Blanchard, 1988). On the other hand, too much or the wrong kind of stress can deplete personal energy levels, weaken the body's immune system, and

bring out inherent weakness (Emde 1987). It can ultimately destroy the individual physically, psychologically, and professionally.

Borelli (1988) presented an interesting perspective of stress.

> Beyond a certain point, stress becomes an addiction- much like that of alcohol or drug abuse - and the stress begins to run us. Our bodies and our minds tire, our vision narrows, and our sense of personal gratification and meaning suffer... At this point, our bodies suffer from the wear and tear of stress that is ignored (p.20).

Summary

Stress does not have a single, clear definition. "The exact meaning remains ambiguous, ill-defined, overused, and different to different people (Pierce,1982, p.10)." It is a very complex syndrome which involves all systems of the body, all systems of the psyche and all social settings (Hobfoll, 1988). In the body, the cardiovascular, endocrine, and neurological systems all interact with experienced demands. The cognitive, psychological, and emotional aspects of the mind are involved in the process. All relationships of the person - personal, interpersonal, organizational, and societal - play integral roles in the stress syndrome. Accordingly, stress has acquired a wide range of meanings (Robertson, 1988), yet retains a vagueness and lack of clarity.

Stress is unavoidable. Essentially, every matter in the human experience can produce stress. It is "everywhere in the environment (Pierce, 1982, p.11)." To live, one must experience stress, some more than others. Stress can be created by any, or a combination, of many different agents. People continue to experience a certain amount of stress when sleeping (Sharpe, and Lewis, 1978). Stress is an essential of life, it is neither good or bad (Lazarus, 1966, Pines 1981, Selye 1976, Awalt, 1988). The only state without stress is death.

Although stress is an important aspect of life, the response is more important. How the individual reacts determines the consequences (Awalt, 1988). How one copes or responds determines the susceptibility to stress. Stress is all human experience, real or perceived. The human soul, mind and body is designed to repair itself and become stronger from tension and stress. However, if the strains become overwhelming to the body's coping mechanisms and depletes its resources, the individual may be worn away or destroyed. Because stress usually induces more stress, it is self propagating, not only in an individual or an organization, but throughout society. In today's society, when the body does not have the time to repair, rest, and employ successful coping strategies from the ever increasing onslaught of stresses, we as individuals and a society are in severe jeopardy. The common theme of current literature

is that stress is an ever increasing problem with no easy solutions (Reed, 1984).

The fundamental problems facing society is the failure to cope with the stresses of life, the failure to achieve goals, and the failure to nurture relationships. In the search for fulfillment, we have lost the meaning in life. Instead of being enriched, we are being destroyed by the experience of life. Stress is killing us.

Lazarus (1980) quoted Charles Bukowski's poem "The Shoelace" in describing stress

> It is not the large things that send man to the madhouse... No, it's the continuing series of small tragedies that send a man to the madhouse... Not the death of his love, but a shoelace that snaps with no time left (p.60).

Burnout

In recent years, increasing attention has been given to the excessive stresses on the job and the problems of burnout as a response to those stresses (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981). "Job stress is the most universal and intense type of stress and affects nearly everyone (Pierce, 1982, p.14)." Job stress is the "lack of harmony between the individual and his work environment (Pelletier, 1977, p.90)." Many people believe that their jobs create the greatest stress in their lives (Thomas, 1983). Our jobs are not only the means to supply our needs of food and shelter. In our culture,

work compensation in the form of income and recognition is the declaration of our self worth. If anything is wrong in our relationship to our work, tremendous stress can result. In response, an individual may employ a progression of attempts to cope with the stress over a period of time. If the attempts are unsuccessful, one amy arrive at the final stage of the work-related stress response, burnout. Burnout, in turn, may ruin the careers and lives of its victims (Clouse, 1982).

Although burnout is as old as stressful work environments and professional frustration, the syndrome was not properly recognized through forty years of stress research. Finally, Freudenberger (1977) described a phenomenon he was observing in human service professions and called it "burnout." Burnout was defined as "to fail, to wear out or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources (Freudenberger, 1977, p.14)." He discovered symptoms, such as cynicism, negativism, and a tendency to be inflexible and rigid in thinking (Pierce, 1982). Later, Freudenberger expanded his definition by stating "to burn out is to deplete oneself, to exhaust one's physical and mental resources, to wear oneself out by expectation imposed by oneself or the values of society (1980, p.60)." He, along with Dubrin (1979) suggested that burnout disproportionately affects those in the helping

professions, such as mental health, nursing, teaching, day care, and police work.

Maslach and Pines defined burnout as "a syndrome of physical and emotional exhaustion, involving the development of negative self-concept, negative job attitudes and loss of concern for clients (1977, p.113). It is

> a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that can occur among individuals who do people work of some kind. It is a response to the chronic emotional strain of dealing extensively with other human beings, particularly when they are troubled and having problems, thus it can be considered a type of job stress (Maslach, 1982, p.3).

Maslach (1982) suggested that burnout is unique in that it is stress coming out of social interaction and more a response to chronic everyday stress. Burnout is the result of changes in one's tolerance to continued stress, "a gradual wearing away under the never ending onslaught of emotional tensions (Maslach, 1982, p.15)."

Burnout is not the response to a major catastrophe, put to say it metaphorically, it is being "put to death by thumb tack wounds." Most people can rally around a major problem: They attack it, bring it to a resolution, and go on.

Burnout does not proceed that way. It is a prolonged series of small stresses, not easily recognized by the victim. It is a slight overload in which the alarm reaction of Selye's stress syndrome model, never comes to a final resting state. Burnout is not an explosion or one large crisis, it is rather being "cooked to death over a low fire."

Pines, Aronson, and Kafry (1981) considered burnout a state of mind that frequently affects individuals in the helping professions - those people "who pour much more into their work than they get out (Pines et al., 1981, p.1)." Burnout is found among professions that deal primarily with people. It is a syndrome associated with the excessive demand of intense involvement and inadequate skills to meet expectations in self or interpersonal relationships over long periods of time (Pines et al., 1981). Thus, individuals lose the ability to cope and enjoy the environment. Burnout sneaks up on the individual from a general erosion of spirit, not from one or two major events, creating an insidious malady (Pines et al., 1981).

Kahn called burnout "a syndrome of inappropriate attitudes toward clients and toward self, often associated with uncomfortable physical and emotional symptoms (1978, p.61)." Metz (1979) said burnout described human beings who become exhausted or spent from work.

Cherniss (1980), proposed burnout as a negative attitude change developed by persons to cope with the stress of work. It is "a process encompassing negative changes in work related attitudes and behaviors in response to stress (1980, p.5)."A previously committed professional disengages from his or her work in response to experienced stress and strain (1980, p.18)." If the professional employs active problem solving and the experienced stress remains uncontrollable, the professional may employ a psychological escape, known as burnout, to insure that additional stress will not be experienced (1980, p.18). Baldwin (1981) expanded Cherniss's definition by suggesting burnout depends on "the person, the work environment, and the adequacy of coping skills (p.20)."

Cherniss (1980) saw the characteristics of the work setting interacting with the person variables, individual differences and extra-work factors, resulting in stress, and some individuals responded to the stress by developing a negative attitude (Burke and Greenglass, 1989). Burnout must be placed in the context of the relationship of the worker and his or her work environment, but burnout may be of broader social consequence due to the systematic frustration of the professional and non-professional self (Cherniss, 1980). Seeing burnout as a product of current society, Cherniss (1980) identified the present work

environment for professionals as promoting disillusionment, reality shock, and burnout. These factors may become more acute in the 1980's (Paine, 1982), and 1990's.

To consolidate Freudenberger's (1975), Maslach's (1982), and Cherniss's (1980) descriptions, burnout is apparently a very complex response that follows a great many attempts of coping strategies in situations which provide little or no feedback as to the adequacies of such attempts ; thus, reducing the confidence in the ability to overcome the stress (Hamberger & Lohr, 1984). Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) added the loss of idealism and purpose to the definition of burnout.

Levin (1980b) simply stated burnout is physical and emotional exhaustion caused by a demanding profession. Melendez and de-Guzman (1983) saw burnout occurring in individuals who worked with other people and giving much more than they recieved in return. "The bottom line is that burnout sets in when the effort we expend is inverse proportion to the satisfaction we receive (Hall and Wessel, 1990, p.35R)." To balance the equation, thce worker gives considerably less to their work (Farber, 1983).

Some believe burnout was simply a new word for an old phenomenon - a buzzword for pop psychologists. Perlman and Hartman argued burnout should be returned to the context of the stress theory. Gehrman (1981) said burnout was very

similar to what was formerly called a "nervous breakdown." Some dismissed burnout was nothing more that old depression, alienation, apathy, boredom, mid-life crisis, identity crisis, job stress, and even an excuse to avoid facing responsibility. However, the overwhelming research in recent years shows burnout to be a very real disease which occurs when people care about their jobs but can no longer sustain the energy and emotion necessary to perform their jobs properly (Thorne, 1988). As Cherniss suggested, "burnout is a complex sociological psychological phenomenon which deserves more serious study than most writers have given it (Cherniss, 1980, p.9)."

As Lewis Helfetz and Henry Bersani is quoted in Farber's book (Farber, 1983), burnout is a form of emotional erosion where dedication becomes apathy, altruism becomes contempt, the impossible dream become anxious insomnia, and crusaders become kvetchers. In their cybernetic model, they said burnout was the failure to see milestones being met and those milestones were disrupted by one or more key elements in the process.

The definitions of burnout have progressed from simple to complex to cover more within the framework of the syndrome. Although the interpretations are multidimensional, there are common trends which can be traced through the various descriptions. Riggar (1985) collated many of the

definitions into one presentation to illustrate the striking common trends:

... when professional role envisioned during counselor training conflicts with real work demands on time and energy.

... victims of stress overload.

... to deplete oneself, to exhaust one's physical and mental resources.

... to wear oneself out by excessively striving to reach some unrealistic expectation imposed by oneself of values of society.

... a process in which the professional's attitudes and behavior change in negative ways in response to job strain.

... to fail or wear out or become exhausted by making excessive demands on energy, strength, or resources.

... a syndrome characterized by loss of productivity, energy, and interest in their jobs by staff members.

... a pervasive mood of anxiety giving away to depression and despair.

... the therapist's failure to muster the reserves necessary to remain effective on the job.

... the emotional exhaustion resulting from the stress of interpersonal contact.

... when staff lose all feeling and concern for clients and treat them in detached and even dehumanizing ways.

... emotional exhaustion and attitude shifts.

... loss of caring characterized by an emotional exhaustion in which the professional no longer has any positive feelings, sympathy, or respect for clients or patients.

> ... a progressive loss of idealism, energy, and purpose experienced by people in the helping professions as a result of the conditions of their work.
>
> ... always having incomplete tasks competing for your attention in the present.
>
> ... a debilitating condition involving the development of negative emotional, physical, and psychological reactions to occupational stress.
>
> ... a condition produced by working too hard for too long in a high-pressure environment.
>
> ... prolonged involvement either with a few extremely troubling cases, or with too many cases (p.xvi-xvii).

Burnout is an ecological dysfunction, whereby the symbiotic relationship of the person and the job is detrimental to both. It is work related, involving the person and the work environment. Formerly regarded as a response found in the helping professions, burnout has been expanded to include other professions and work roles. It may have been in existence a long time, but the characteristics of modern society has brought burnout into prominence as a serious problem. Burnout is different from other forms of stress response because it is the result of long term stress with a set of unique characteristics.

The definition of burnout will continue to be refined. The common trends in the many different descriptions will provide a core for a working definition for most people. We know that burnout occurs on a personal, individual level, but organizations may also exhibit burnout. It is a process which evolves over time. Related to job stress, burnout

appears to be a internal psychological experience which involves feelings, attitudes, habits, motives, and expectations. Finally, burnout is a negative experience causing distress, discomfort, dysfunction, and other negative consequences for the individual and the organizations which are involved in the burnout process - it can be personally and professionally destructive. Job dissatisfaction, strain, tedium, and a host of negative work related feelings and values will have to become incorporated into the working definition, while separating the folk descriptions from the clinical definitions, which includes individual, sociological, and ecological perspectives. Perhaps, through continued study a more generic description will develop which will be applicable to any situation, perhaps not.

Burnout is something like venereal herpes (Golembiewski & Munzenrider, 1988). Both have been identified and partially understood. Both have come into prominence due to current prevailing customs and mores, but the problems have been around for a long time. Now, to prevent an epidemic of either, we need more knowledge of, and caring about, the problems. To more fully understand burnout, we need to review the nature of the burnout response.

The Burnout Response

Those in work settings, particularly those who spend a lot of time in close encounter with people and trying to help them, who work constantly under tense stressful conditions, show a unique set of stress responses which is now called burnout. "Burnout may be viewed as a process that begins with high enthusiasm and dedication which overtime is drastically reduced in terms of attitude and behavior (Freudenberger, 1977. p.90). "In their work, "no matter how great their efforts, the results seem to be frustration. Some vital spark in side these men and women is burning out, leaving a terrible void (Freudenberger and Richelson, 1980, p.3)." Burnout can occur as the individual becomes cynical develops a closed mind, so rigid in thinking that any change or innovation is suspect (Freudenberger, 1977).

Spaniel (cited in Dubrin, 1979) proposed three levels of burnout. First degree burnout begins with short bouts of irritability, fatigue, worry, and frustration. Second degree burnout has the same characteristics as first degree burnout except the bouts last for several weeks or longer. Third degree burnout brings about physical problem, such as migraine headaches, ulcers, and chronic back pain.

Maslach's model of the burnout response proposed "burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that

occurs among individuals who do 'people work' of some kind (Maslach, 1982, p.1)."

One aspect emotional exhaustion is being "drained and used up (Maslach, 1982, p.5)." Emotional resources are depleted, and there is no source of replenishment. From the emotional overload and subsequent emotional exhaustion, individuals simply have "no energy to face the day (Maslach, 1982, p.5)." These individuals feel no longer able to give of themselves.

To shield themselves from the stress of involvement and caring for others, the individuals detach themselves psychologically. They exhibit cold indifference, callousness, impatience and disregard toward their clients. Maslach labeled this stage as "depersonalization (1982, p.8)". Responses to clients become dehumanizing, and the carriers of the syndrome begin to wish people would get out of their lives and leave them alone because they feel everyone is out to make trouble for them. To handle the personal feeling about their problems, individuals distance themselves from the persons they believe are causing the problems, adding another layer of detachment. The building hostility from internal frustration and fear of threat may lead an individual to blame "them." Over time, the cynicism and callousness develops into total "withering (Maslach, 1982, p.18)."

Continued interactions and perception lead the victim to the third aspect, the lack of personal accomplishement. These negative feelings toward others may lead individuals to become down on themselves. They develop guilt and distress about their behavior toward others, with a rising feeling of inadequacy. They question their own abilities, and develop a self verdict of failure, self-depression, and a loss of self esteem. They feel they are doing a bad job. As a last ditch effort to stave off the feelings of failure or weakness, individuals may institute a form of denial. The victims may begin to feel omnipotent, acting as if they know everything and have seen it all before. They begin to take unrealistic chances exposing themselves to risk. The individuals refuse to admit there is a problem because that would be a sign of weakness or incompetence (Maslach, 1982, p.71). Unattended, the stress may promote depression.

From the depression and crumbling self-esteem some may seek counseling, others simply withdraw physically or psychologically from the work. They have minimum contact with their clients and customers. They avoid tasks and involvement. Finally, the process may become too much for the individuals, and they physically leave work through absenteeism or quitting (Maslach, 1982).

Cherniss (1980) proposed burnout as a transactional process which has three stages. The first stage occurs when

there is an imbalance between resources and demand and stress results. In the second stage, this imbalance produces an immediate, short burst of emotional response which may lead to feelings of anxiety, tension, fatigue, and exhaustion (Allen, 1982). The third and final stage is characterized by negative changes in attitude and behavior with the tendency to treat clients in a detached and impersonal fashion. A cynical preoccupation with gratifying one's own needs results from with the onslaught of defensiveness.

> Burnout is a process that is self-reinforcing. Discouragement and withdrawal will likely lead to more failure in the helping role, because... enthusiasm, optimism, and involvement are often necessary for success. This failure leads to further discouragement, which leads to further failure, and so on. Once the cycle begins, it is difficult to break (Cherniss, 1980, p.19,20).

Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) broke the burnout response into four stages. In the first stage, the individual is filled with enthusiasm. As the work becomes less satisfying, the individual enters a stage of stagnation. Upon experiencing the inability to meet one's expectations, the individual enters the frustration stage. Finally, when the individual realizes he or she may not reach the earlier aspirations, apathy takes over. The individual simply gives up caring because caring causes too much internal pain.

Clouse (1982b) characterized burnout as a syndrome with a lack of enthusiasm, high levels of frustration and

alienation, and physical and emotional fatigue. "Burnout is a process which begins with high enthusiasm and dedication, then there is a drastic reversal in attitude and behavior (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981, p.17)." It is a three stage response which relates to unresolved frustration (Clouse, 1982b). At first, highly dedicated professionals enter their jobs filled with high expectations, enthusiasm, and an intense desire to help others. Enthusiasm begins to decline when high expectations by the individual can not be met." The deterioration of enthusiasm is a serious problem (Pierce, 1982, p.28)." The stress and loss of enthusiasm in the work environment may bring about a feeling of incompetence and inadequacy which, in turn, promotes frustration and anxiety. "Frustration is the first sign of burnout (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981, p.19)."

The person who cannot cope with the sources of frustration, may experience anxiety and detachment. Alienation may come from frustrations associated with organizational barriers, professional disillusionment, personal problems which interfere with service, and feelings of powerlessness (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981, p.22). Emotional detachment may occur from emotional overload, doubts of effectively servicing clients, to reduce the pain of failing, and feeling of incompetence and lack of support systems. Finally, with a feeling of isolation, physical and

psychological withdrawal may occur - the individual is now burned out.

Pines, Aronson and Kafry (1981) introduced the concept of tedium to the burnout model. Whereas tedium and burnout are both conditions of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion, they differ in their origins. Tedium is the result of prolonged chronic pressures, too many negative and not enough positive features in one's environment. Burnout is the product of constant and repeated pressures associated with intense involvement with people over a long period of time. Tedium comes when one feels they are working hard and being productive, but their efforts are not appreciated. Burnout is getting away from people and the work environment. In the final analysis, both tedium and burnout are treated in the same manner, therefore the separation of the two concepts in the model may not be necessary or advisable.

Baldwin (1981) introduced five stages of burnout. Stage one is characterized by "intimate involvement." The individual is new to the work place. He or she is very excited about the profession, the job, and his or her place in it. The next stage, the exhaustion/questioning stage, begins with the individual becoming over involved in the job, and experiencing physical and emotional exhaustion. Stage three, the balancing act stage, is critical but

nebulous. Coping strategies are employed to deal with the stress. The success of these strategies determine if burnout is stopped or the individual will proceed to the next level. In stage four, the "withdrawal, disappointment stage, the person experiences increased suffering due to poor coping skills. Professional death warnings are being exhibited through serious depression and stress-related problems at home and at work. The final stage, "terminal cynicism", is characterized by self protection over self-management. The torn down professional merely goes through the motions of work. The individual withdraws through a permanently decreased involvement and a prevailing sense of failure and defeat (Baldwin, 1981). The professional has burned out.

Perlman and Hartman (1982) followed the thoughts of other researchers in proposing that the burnout response had three components: emotional and physical exhaustion, lower work productivity, and over depersonalization.

Golembiewski and Munzenrider (1988) took the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach and Jackson, 1981) as his model and suggested that the burnout response had eight distinctive patterns or phases. Each of the three components, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and (lack of) personal accomplishment had high and low states. The first phase had a low rating for each of the three

components. The second phase had a high rating for emotional exhaustion with low ratings for the other two components. The combinations continued until all three components had a high rating in phase eight which meant total burnout. Golemblewski's and Munzenrider's phase model has been challenged (Leiter, 1988) as just a mathematical recombination, and not adequately descriptive of the burn out process.

Gillespie (1981) characterized burnout as active and passive. Active burnout is characterized by avoidance which stems from social and organizational factors. Passive burnout is the loss of interest and commitment which seems to stem from psychological processing. Hoover-Dempsey, (1981, 1982) stated that burnout was not an avoidance of stress, but a balancing act between stressful events and coping resources and skills.

Burnout is a response to an "accumulation of stresses over which we perceive we have no control - where we fail to produce the result we expected...Burnout enters when hope departs, no matter who we are (Hall and Wessel, 1990, p.49R)." It is a helpless/hopeless feeling which develops because individuals give much more than they receive (Awalt, 1988.) Burnout begins when people feel the situation is out of their control. Instead of seeking help, most burnout victims attack the stress head on, finding ways to combat

the problems. Although failing in each attempt, they bounce back with enough determination to lick anything in their way. When those efforts fail, the exhausted professional becomes so frustrated that they begin to feel alienation. The alienation, unchecked, will lead the person to withdrawal physically and psychologically. In the last stage, the individual develops a negative attitude change known as burnout. If the burned out person is young, he or she may see greener pastures on the other side of the fence and leave the job and even the profession. Older people, who see no fences, will usually stay in the job and withdraw to mediocrity or worse.

Sources and Causes of Burnout

Combining the suggestions of Cherniss (1980), Clouse and Whitaker (1981), and Maslach (1982), the sources of burnout are personal or environmental. Environmental sources may be divided into professional, organizational, and societal.

Personal Sources

What kind of person is susceptible to burnout? The person brings certain characteristics to any situation which by interaction with the environment dictates the response to stress. Reed (1984) states these characteristics are based

on the individuals personality, past history, inner fears, inner desires, and ambitions. Maslach (1982) suggested the person brings certain qualities to the situation. They are motivation, needs, values, self-esteem, emotional expressions and control, and personal style. With these internal qualities set up, the person also brings a particular use of interpersonal skills. Personalities and other qualities play a significant role in the burnout syndrome (Maslach, 1982).

"For a person to burnout, there must have been a fire (Pines et al., 1981 cited in Awalt, 1988,p.3)." So it seems the very best kind of people may be lost to burnout. It is the most committed, most enthusiastic, most idealistic, most energetic people early in their career who are most susceptible to burnout (Pines et al., 1981). It is usually those people who do not care about the size of their paycheck (Pines et al., 1981). It is "the truly dedicated worker who tends to be a prime candidate for burnout (Awalt, 1988, p.7)."

As Clouse and Whitaker (1981) suggested, burnout occurs among professionals enter theirs job with high ideals and expectations about what they hope to achieve. They have good intentions and a sincere desire to help. Their energy and motivation is high. Their dedication, commitment, and ideals are strong. They have a desire to be needed. They

have supposedly been trained and are well equipped with the necessary skills for the job.

"Previously enthusiastic, idealistic, dedicated individuals become aloof professionals whose attitudes and emotional states change drastically from initial employment to later years of employment (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981, p.18)." Burnout erodes those individuals who have been the most productive in earlier years (Pines, Aronson, and Kafry, 1981).

Hall and Wessel (1990,P.49R) describe the prime candidates for burnout as people who want to make a difference. They are dynamic, goal oriented, charismatic doers. They are the extraordinarily committed and dedicated do-gooders in our society. They are competent, self-sufficient, hard working, and seem cool and unflappable on the surface. They are achievers. Burnout candidates are unusually driven achievers who have unrealistic goals (Niehouse, 1987).

Does age or experience of the person relate to the susceptibility to burnout? Burn out has been found among individuals who have been in the profession for many years (Freudenberger, 1979). This seems logical because it is recognized that burnout is a slow, but insidious, process. However, research (Maslach, 1982) has shown burnout may happen in the first few years of a professional life.

Clouse and Whitaker (1981) reported cases of burnout among professionals in their first year of working for an organization. Gold and Bachelor (1988) detected signs of burnout among teachers who were still in their training period. Pines and others (1981) stated that young, recently hired, professionals, who are overly optimistic about the possibilities of changing an organization frequently, end up angry, frustrated, despairing, and burned out. Maslach (1982) suggested the young professionals burn out and leave the job or the profession, older professionals withdraw into complacency.

Stress is personal, and affects people differently, it is relative to an individual's tolerance and coping with stress (Pierce, 1982). Stress actually makes some people perform well. Others may find that the least amount of stress interferes with their ability to produce. Freudenberg and Richelson (1980) felt that the traits of an individuals personality were the prime force in burnout.

> Not every personality is susceptible to burnout. It would be virtually impossible for the underachiever to get into that state, or the happy-go-lucky individual with fairly modest aspirations. Burnout is pretty much limited to dynamic, charismatic, goal oriented men and women or to determined idealists who want their marriages to work, their work records to be outstanding, their children to shine and their community to be better (Freudenberger and Richelson, 1980, p.19).

Robertson (1988) found Freudenberger's definition of burnout similar to Freidman and Rosenman's (1974)

description of the type "A" behavior. Friedman and Rosenman, researchers at the National Institute of Health categorized personalities into types "A" and "B."

Individuals with the type "A" personality had intense drives, aggressiveness, and ambition. Highly competitive, they were very anxious over getting things done and had a habit of pitting themselves against deadlines. Friedman and Rosenman (1974) found a close direct relationship between the type "A" behavior and cardiac problems.

The type "B" person was more easy going, seldom impatient, and always seemed to have more time for leisurely pursuits. Type "B" personalities had fewer health problems.

Type "A" personalities in professionals make them prime targets for burnout.

People with high expectations of themselves, others and their job are some of the most tragic victims of burnout. They seem to have a sense of purpose (Helliwell, 1981). They have enormously good intentions and need to achieve - to excess (Maslach 1982). They may set goals too high for themselves and others. They develop a single-minded purpose for their lives, having a "perfect" script (Helliwell, 1981). To reach those goals, everything is sacrificed. They set themselves up in "no-win" situations, or where the

losses out number the gains. "Unrealistic expectations insures failure (Maslach, 1982, p.66)."

These people have a Pollyanna perspective. They believe all things are possible through their efforts. They believe anything can be changed or improved. Due to their intense need to help because they derive an overwhelming component of their self identity from their work, they try too hard (Alessandra & Reznik, 1988; Clouse & Whitaker, 1981, p.180). "Many of our best and brightest people have felt empty and unfulfilled. More accomplishment, more achievement, more effort appeared to be the prescription that many have written for themselves (Awalt, 1988, p.28)." They try too hard and fail until they become disillusioned and cynical (Pines et al., 1981). The human and social costs may be overwhelming (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981). They seek perfection and can tolerate no weakness (Awalt, 1988) in themselves and others. When others fail their expectations, the individuals isolate themselves and "go it alone" to protect their image. This action invites "big time" burnout when the individuals fail (Hall and Wessel, 1990). Levin (1980b) stated perfectionism and poor delegation are burnout prone personality characteristics.

Why do some people try too hard? Maslach (1982) suggested certain personal motivations may force an individual to push oneself to the point of burnout.

Motivations are usually selfish in that they promote emotional safety and self-esteem. An individual may have a strong need for approval or affection, to gain a sense of self worth, and to give a boost to one's self esteem. They may wish to get rid of guilt feelings through a good deed. They may have to satisfy a need for intimacy when they have difficulty getting close to another. They may have a need for personal identity. It is not good or bad that motivations are selfish, but intense needs may create exaggerated expectations, expectations which may not be met.

Another expectation which makes one vulnerable to burnout is that people expect their jobs to provide meaning and significance in their lives (Thorne, 1989). They usually care very strongly about what they do as a profession. They want to save the world or at least make a signifi=cant difference in their corner. Levinson (1981) found many executives, who had a strong commitment to their work, with much of their self-image being derived from their success at work, may be prone to burnout. Armstrong (cited in Clouse & Whitaker, 1981) identified burnout as the stage when a person has become separated or withdrawn from the original meaning or purpose of work.

Cherniss (1980) said five personality traits that influence the individual's response to stress are neurotic anxiety, "type "A" syndrome, locus of control, flexibility,

and introversion (Awalt, 1988). How someone deals with stressful situations and conflict, particularly role conflict, influences their propensity for burnout. Anxiety prone and introverted people have a more intense reaction than others (Kahn, 1973). Rigid personalities seem to suffer less from role conflict, but the inflexibility tends to counter adaptability and cause even greater stress (Kahn, 1978). A person's need to closely control their environment, and one's difficulty in dealing with ambiguity will enhance burnout in the work setting.

Maslach (1982), established a personality profile for the burnout-prone individual.

> ...week and unassertive when dealing with people
> ...impatient and intolerant
> ...easily angered and frustrated
> ...lacks self confidence
> ...has little ambition
> ...more reserved and conventional
> ...acquiesces and over accommodates
> ...adapts to constraints rather than oppose (Maslach, 1982, p.62)

Pine, Aronson, and Kafry (1981), added a very important personal characteristic which could lead to burnout, caring. Caring people are more client centered and derive some self-esteem from the success of their clients. People who care too much about what happens in the work setting are more vulnerable to burnout. When one deals with clients, the individual has limited control over the actions of the clients. Despite efforts to move a client in one direction, the client may choose to move in another direction. The

giving up of control over the outcome of a situation makes one vulnerable to possible failure and the stress which goes with it. Too many stresses over a prolonged period time can lead to the old nemeses, burnout.

Although early studies (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981; Freudenberger, 1977; Maslach 1982; Pines et al., 1981) suggested that burnout was a syndrome unique to the helping professions, burnout does not discriminate by profession (Hall and Wessel, 1990). Everyone is a potential target because "burnout has occurred in every profession today (Awalt, 1988, p.31)." Executives living on the leading edge of our society are vulnerable (Schoonmaker, 1969; Levinson, H., 1990) Middle managers are susceptible (Yates, 1979). Even our dentists and their hygienists are at risk for burnout (Dunlap 1981).

Certain demographic factors may lead to burnout. Maslach (1982) found that the higher the education, the greater chance for burnout, except for those who return to graduate school after being in the work place for some time. Maslach discovered that women seem to more vulnerable than men to burnout. Childless adults have higher propensity for burnout. Black people have much less tendency to burnout than white people. Single people experience more stress than divorced people, who, in turn experience more than married people (Maslach, 1982). Pines and others (1981)

found than professional women had slightly higher levels of tedium than their male counterparts.

Some malingering people use the label "burnout" as an excuse for their inadequate work performance. However, they are what the layman calls "lazy." Their relationship with their work is to put in the least investment possible into their work [just enough to avoid getting fired], with expectation of receiving the maximum compensation possible. This personality does remotely resemble the unique characteristics researchers have found in burned out individuals.

There are other characteristics of the individual which may contribute to burnout. In addition to unrealistic expectations, Maslach (1982) suggests people, who are quick to become frustrated, have fragile self-esteems, and feel a lack of respect or that something is wrong with themselves, may burn out. Workaholics are prone for burnout (Homer, 1985). Professionals who perpetuate an image or "mask" (Maslach, 1982) by hiding their true feelings are suceptible to burnout. They exhibit a "front" that nothing is ever wrong and that they have everything in control, but the contrary is true. Difficulties could arise among those people who have unrealistic ego needs (Miller, 1979), or have a habitual way of looking at the world (Pines et al., 1981). Those who take success or failure at work personally

(Robertson , 1988), and lack the ability to empathize (Maslach, 1982; Pines et al., 1981) usually experience excessive pressures. If professionals cannot process information effectively, they may find them overwhelmed and in the burnout net (Rader cited in Hobfoll, 1988). Farber (1983) stated that a an individual's lack of motivation from long hours, and hard work makes one a prime candidate for burnout. Finally, Edelwich and Brodsky (1980) believed the irrationality of thinking and irrationality of expectation by the individual, not the system nor the organization, may lead to burnout.

People who usually burn out were, at one time, highly committed, competent, energetic, enthusiastic, individuals who held unrealistic expectations in the work setting. Burnout prone people are those people whom employers would consider ideal professionals. These people cared too much, they tried to hard, they failed. They sought meaning in their work, and found little. They became frustrated from a sense of failure. They give up and burnout.

Environmental Sources

Since it appears that burnout prone people are good people, Pines and others (1981) proposed an interesting thought, burnout is not due to bad people -just bad situations. Researchers seem bent on looking for a trait theory to explain the burnout phenomenon. They look to the

person and their vulnerabilities, as though something is wrong with the person and burn out is the individual's fault. When we look at personality and behavior we must remember these characteristics have strong situational components.

When we think about burnout, we tend to focus primarily on the individual and overlook the contribution that the environment makes (Maslach, 1982). Many believe the factors in the environment may be the major forces of burnout. Others feel the type of person involved in the situation is responsible for burnout (Awalt, 1988). What role does the job, the profession, the work setting, and other people play?

In studying burnout, context is very important. Cherniss (1980) stated the interaction of the work environment and personal characteristics contribute to work stress and burnout. Paine (1982) asserted that burnout is an interactive phenomenon which depends onstressful working conditions and a predisposed person with unrealistic high expectation. Homer (1985) said burnout is caused by a stressful work environment in combination with an individual's workaholic response to the work setting. Levin (1980b) suggested burnout was a product of a burn out prone personality and a burnout prone environment. Although a person may burn out in any setting, a burnout prone

environment enhances the process (Allen, 1982). Clouse (1982) stated frustration, which leads to burnout, may include personal characteristics, family issues, organizational and management issues, or professional concerns. Freudenberger (1977) included the values of the individual, the work system, and society as contributors to stress and burnout. Farber (1983) suggested attention to the individual's psychodynamics, organizational support, and economic and social conditions.

Yates (1979) outlined environmental stressors as the role in an organization, responsibility, and relationships with other people, invasion of territory, career development, and the structure and culture of the organization. Levin (1980b) describe the burnout prone environment as being an non-reciprocating environment which included isolation, routinization, lack of spirit, no rewards for extra effort, and no recognition of the individual or individuality. The environment may contribute to the burnout syndrome through intense emotional intensity of involvement with people, a negative focus on problems, lack of positive feedback, and poor peer contact in the job setting (Maslach, 1982). Negative working conditions may promote stress and burnout.

Paine (1982) offered a testable set of environmental factors which are problems facing professionals, decision makers, and researchers:

1. Continuously high stress levels.
2. Norm of constantly giving to others.
3. Encouragement of hierarchical staff interaction.
4. Constant demands for perfection.
5. Minimum receptivity to sharing worker grievances.
6. Expectation of extra effort with minimum reward.
7. No reinforcement for suggestions or improving morale.
8. Repetitive work activities.
9. Minimum additional resources for extra effort tasks.
10. Lack of encouragement for professional self care.
11. Discouragement of mutual participation.
12. Evangelistic, psycho-theological leadership style.
13. Policy changes showing little direct relation to problem priority.
14. Policy changes too frequent to be evaluated.
15. Rigid role typing for workers.
16. Playfulness from professionals.
17. Pervasive like ageism, racism, sexism, nepotism.
18. Emphasis on past success.
19. Constantly changing ground rules or policies.
20. Minimum emphasis of positive feedback.
21. Minimum priority on comfortableness of environment.

Miller (1979) described situational sources of stress and burnout as conflicting values with others, lack of resources, lack of control, and the increased emphasis on accountability. Burnout is a function of the situation (Pines et al., 1981). If "appropriate situational causes are not recognized or appreciated, attempted solutions for burnout will be misguided or incomplete (Maslach, 1982, p.22)."

Professional Factors

The lack of prestige, respect, and status of a profession may contribute to burnout (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981). For example, in our society teachers and nurses are not held in high esteem, whereas in Europe there are on top of the status ladder. Clouse and Whitaker (1981) assert professional sources of stress might include not being regarded a true profession, lack of autonomy, lack of higher degrees of control, and inadeuquate training. These factors might lead to a lack of professionalism, particularly among those in the helping professions.

A "Professional myth" exists, whereas the public believes professional enjoy high autonomy, are highly trained and competent, and are compassionate and caring (Cherniss, 1980). According to Maslach (1982), the rules of the professional game expect the professional to behave a certain way, to follow a prescribed professional etiquette. Professionals are expected to be kind, caring, calm, patient, respectful. Professionals are considered able to leap tall buildings with a single bound. Professionals have the tendency to reinforce the public's belief to the point of creating unrealistically high expectations of themselves. Professionals carry out a "conspiracy of silence (Maslach, 1982, p.30)." They wear a mask of calmness. They keep a lid on their feelings of being overwhelmed. They hide their emotions to keep the professional image. They try to be something no one is - the perfect person who gives the same

level of service to everyone. The professional has incredible pressures to be competent, dedicated, and committed (Pierce, 1982), although professional standards may be in conflict with organizational goals or personal well-being (Maslach, 1982). To cope from being overwhelmed, the professional adopts a posture of detached concern, and maintains the image of perfection (Pines et al., 1981). The mask may hide the professional hurting from stress. Instead of acknowledging the stress, the professional response is to deny the stress (Pines et al., 1981). Inevitably, this myth may create a crisis. The professional may not be able to maintain the immage as productivity suffers from reality. The professional may be burning out on the inside, while displaying an ice-like picture on the outside.

Part of the burnout problem may the way professionals are trained as implied by eager first year professionals who leave their positions a few months after being hired (Paine, 1982: Golembiewski & Munzenrider,1988). Interdependence and cooperation are not modeled in professional schools. The emulation of the professional ego to display closure and defensiveness has been perpetuated. The schools do not include the process of dealing with environmental constraints. While the schools teach dealing with external issues, they do little to teach healthy self management and preservation.

"Professional" is a term usually reserved for those well-educated, highly ethical people who provide a service. The definition suggests an involvement with people which is naturally stressing (Pines et al., 1981, Armstrong, 1971). Each profession has unique stresses, but most are common. Many aspects of the professional in the real world contribute to frustration, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment that collectively may produce burnout (Maslach, 1982).

Organizational Factors

To learn burnout, one must focus on the organizational context of the process. Many elements of the job situation define the nature of an individual's productivity and satisfaction. Institutions contribute certain type of factors to the burnout phenomenon (Maslach, 1982). They are:

1. Goals, resources, and policies.
2. Form and context of environment.
3. Culture of expectation, cooperation, and communication.
4. Structure.
5. Time for completion.

The prevailing elements of burnout in the organizational context are feelings of helplessness, hopelessness and entrapment (Pines et al., 1981; Robertson, 1988), with the biggest contributor to burnout being the feeling of a lack of control (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981;

Freudenberger, 1977; Maslach, 1982; Thorne, 1988). The lack of power over the impact of one's work can destroy the individual's inner satisfaction. The sense of a lack of control stems from other deficit situations in the work setting which, if present, would promote a productive, responsible performance by individuals. However, due to organizational obstacles, the individuals become frustrated and give up because they perceive they will not be able to do their job. They fail to meet their own high expectations (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981).

The role of the individual in the organization is an important consideration. Role pressures and unclear expectations are factors for burnout (Farber, 1983; Hall and Wessel, 1990; Maslach, 1982). Role pressures can be divided into two types: role conflict and role ambiguity (Reed, 1984). Role ambiguity means the job is ill defined, or the scope of one's responsibilities are not defined. Essentially, it is not well spelled out what the worker is supposed to do (Thomas, 1983). "Persons subjected to conditions of ambiguity on the job tend to be low in job satisfaction, low in self-confidence, high in tension and in a sense of futility (Katz & Kahn, 1966, p.190)."

Blaise, Strathe, and Pajack (1986) suggested the lack of goal directed effort could lead to an inability to cope within the work setting. Conflicting demands or the lack of

a clear criteria for success (Pines et al., 1981) in the organization may confuse and frustrate the individual. Individuals may be expected to implement rules which are vague, arbitrary, and difficult to explain or understand. These features of role ambiguity may lead to burnout.

An excessive workload can lead to burnout (Farber, 1983; Hall and Wessel, 1990; Kew, 1985; Maslach, 1982; Sarros, 1986). This overload may be excessive paperwork (Pines et al., 1981), too many tasks or clients, high demands, or a high degree of responsibility (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981). Overload may be doing multiple shifts (Freudenberger, 1975) or having to process to much information (Rader cited in Hobfoll, 1988). Overload may lead to role ambiguity and role conflict (Farber, 1983). Work left undone creates the sense that one is not accomplishing what one should (Tigros, 1987; Seidin, 1987). "The disturbing feeling of unfinished business takes its toll (Freudenberger, 1977, p.94)." Inadequate performance of one's responsibilities leaves the individual with a feeling of incompetence.

> Sometimes the job is defined as "dirty work," necessary work that is highly distasteful, unpleasant, and upsetting. This makes the job doubly stressful and promotes the possibility of burnout (Maslach, 1982, p.35).

The worker may develop a feeling of helplessness and lack of control in the job setting when they sense their efforts may not influence decisions or change. They may

have a great deal of responsibility but little authority to go with the responsibility. They may feel they have no voice in setting organizational goals and expectations. As Maslach (1982) suggested, individuals may feel they have no say in formulating policies that affect their jobs. Lack of participation in decision making has been related to low job satisfaction and burnout (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981; Seldin, 1987; and Calabrese, 1986). Individuals may feel their efforts may not affect desired changes in the organization and there is no point in continuing to try (Farber, 1983).

Lack of autonomy affects one's job and life (Maslach, 1982, Pines et al., 1981). Professionals who are usually trained to be autonomous and make important decisions, almost feel betrayed by the work place and their profession for creating false expectations in their minds. There is much higher stress found among people who "have to" as opposed to those people who "want to" in their jobs (Pines et al., 1981). Burnout may come from a perceived loss of autonomy and personal control. Professionls may feel trapped and develop feelings of helplessness and hopelessness (Maslach, 1982). A person may feel entrapped from a sense of loss of control, with no break from the stresses on the job, and the sense that they have no opportunity to make desired changes in the future (Metz, 1979). They may also feel trapped from the physical, or economic limitations on changing jobs - it may be the only

job available in the area (Maslach, 1982), or they may be in their senior years. The feeling of entrapment leads to more direct, unrelieved stress. The more stress one encounters, the greater the risk that one may burn out.

"Burnout tends to occur in professions characterized by a high degree of personal investment in the work and high performance expectations (Quick, Nelson, & Quick, 1990 , p.29)." For some there is no break from the intense activity throughout the day (Maslach, 1982: Mintzberg, 1973; Thomas, 1983;). Although they may have an intense involvement with clients and daily work assignements, some workers may feel isolated from their peers and the organization itself (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981). They may feel they must do it all alone, which increases the stress level. Moreover, stress is enchanced when there are numerous interrptions (Tipgos, 1987). Individuals become frustrated because they cannot get their jobs completed due to being constantly interrupted by clients or other job-related demands.

Routinization of a job creates stress because, day in and day out, the worker is faced with the same monotonous process. The lack of variety may lead the worker to a stressful situation. Veringa and Sprangely (1981) identified understimulation on the job, as well as overstimulation as a critical stressor. Pines, Aronson, and

Kafry (1981) proposed individuals burnout from having less to do than for what they were trained, being underchallenges, and generally feeling they were not adequately utilized. McCullough (1987) stated an early manisfestation of burnout may include a "flat," bored feeling. Di Geronimo (1985), while studying teachers, identified boredom as a major factor of burnout.

Time and budget constraints may promote burnout. Sarros (1986), suggested feeling of overextended and tired comes from trying to accomplish tasks in insufficient time. Unrealistic deadlines may create excessive levels of work stress. Having too much to do and too little time to do it creates an overload which promotes a negative quality change in production (Maslach, 1982). Unrelistic deadline demands causes the individual to pull back psychologically and become less involved. Who would like to work in a procees constantly focused on the strong possibility of failure. Just as time may be limiting factor, McMillan (1987) suggested that tight resources may be very stressful. An inadequate supply of resources may prevent the individual from realising desired, and possible, productivity. The individual will become frustrated when one cannot meet their expectations due to these factors.

Two of the strongest precursors to burnoput is the lack of positive feedback and support (Cherniss, 1980; Clouse &

Whitaker, 1981; and Metz, 1979). When a person puts in a great deal of effort in to their job and positive feeback is not received, enthusiasm falters (Clouse & Whitkaker, 1981). Research (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981) shows a strong relationship between alienation and the lack of support and the lack of positive feedback. Professionals, like ordinary people, need positive "strokes" (Maslach, 1982). However, the individuals mayrarely hear compliment for a job well done, but others are all to ready to dish out negative feedback. Good is taken for granted, but when one does not do well it is a golden opportunity for a "cold memo" (Pines et al., 1981, p.72). A stress producing conflict exists when the workers need to give and they have the perception that they can never give enough (Mattingly, 1977). In many professions, the result of one's work is largely intangible, so the worker has little idea whether of not any results have been achieved - if individuals do not get feedback they will tend to focus to the negative and worry about others commenting negatively about their nonsuccess. The lack of support and positive feedback for ones effort are major contributors to burnout.

"Employees are able to withstand great work stress when they feel appreciated and their acts rewarded. Unfortunately, this is rarely the case (Pines et al., 1981, p.72)." Organizations are very ineffective distributors of rewards, appreciation, or recognition. No matter how hard

individuals work, ecognition, appreciation, or advancement are not there for them (Farber, 1983). Ironically, when one does well on a problem, the individual is usually rewarded by getting more problems to handle. Research (Pines et al., 1981) shows that appreciation on the job may be more important than money to the worker. As forms of rewards and appreciation, workers need closure and celebration for a job well done. The organization, which does not celebrate the accomplishments of its people, and lacks bestowing recognition, reward, and appreciation, may be a burnout prone environment

Organizations with a lack of adequate communications and cooperation may promote stress and burnout. Isolation, mentioned earlier, breaks down communication and promotes additional stress. The lack of communicating a criteria for measuring performance or providing a criteria for success leave workers lost. To paraphrase the Chesire Cat in Lewis Carroll's Alice's Adventures in Wonderland (1960), if you do not know where you are going, any road will take you there. [However, if you go the wrong way the organization will dismiss you!] Lack of communication erodes the rapport among peers, particularly those in other areas of the organization. One area may not know or understand the activiy, contributions, and accomplishments of others. Teamwork is drastically reduced, and there is no shared responsibility - reference is made frequently about "them

versus us." Organizations which foster competition and down plays coopperation among its workers fosters conflict between workers complete with distrust, back biting, and distancing (Maslach, 1982). Frequency of conflicts is related to burnout (Maslach, 1982)

Managment of an organization which displays lack of response or consideration to the complicated and increasing pressures of a person's work (Farber, 1983) may contribute to burnout. It may be the structure of the organization. The structral ethos of most companies downgrades shared values, personal openess, concerned receptivity, worker interdependence, alternate modes of enhancing productivity and shared organizational vision (Paine, 1982). Burearcratic structures, which play it "by the book" (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981) or excercize bureaucratic pettiness (Yates, 1979) may promote burnout. Rigid hierarchy authority with strictly enforced rules (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981), close supervision, and a lack of flexibility (Meyer, 1982) do not regard the needs of the individual; therefore, creates additional stress. The individual is told exactly what to do, when, and how - with no leeway for individual difference (Maslach, 1982). To add inconsideration to an already stressful situation, these types of organizations have the attitude, "If you don't like it, you can leave!" Maslach (Maslach, 1982). Pines and others (1981) stated bureaucratic "red Tape" is a burnout stressor. Individuals

become alienated authors as they spend their lives away filling out forms, and writing volumes of reports, produced by many hard hours of work, which no one will read.

Pines and others (1981) suggested chatrcteristics of large bureaucratic organiztions create high levels of tension, and feelings of helplessness and lack of autonomy. These characteristics include circumscribed authority, downard channel command, specialization, formal accountability, hierarchy, and broad based decision making.

Organizations which do not provide relief from long stressful sytems, nor provide a possibility of change or improvement enhance exhaustion, and withdrawal within its workers. If the employer does not provide mobility for its worker to move up in the organization, burnout is a real alternative (Edelwich and Brodsky, 1980).

Certain burnout prone organizations focus primarily on problems in that they ask only for negative information (Maslach, 1982). They believe spending time on the positive is a luxury, and they don't have the luxury of time to consider the positive. An all too common respnse to a problem in an stressful organization is that a problem's cause is not the system, but the fault of the individual creating a feeling of guilt and incompetence in the worker (Maslach, 1982). Difficulties are attributed to deficits in

the people, rather than the situation. These organiztions "blame the victim" or "shoot the messenger" (Maslach, 1982, p.19) and create a "double dip" problem. First, the problem is not corrected, and second, the organization has created a problem for the worker. Individuals depart as "successes go away and failures come back (Maslach, 1982, p.240)."

Several other organizational factors have been identified as contributors to stress burnout:

1. Inadequate training and preparation of workers (Sparks & Hammond, 1981; Truch, 1980; Calabrese, 1986).
2. Poor working conditions (Yates, 1979; Maslach, 1982; Freudenberger, 1977).
3. Unrealistic preemployment expectations (Meyer, 1982).
4. Low salary (McMillan, 1988; Sledin, 1987).
5. Authoratarian superiors (Awalt, 1988; Cherniss, 1980; Hall & Wessel, 1990; Maslach, 1982; Pace and Soujenen, 1988).
6. Conflicts with co-workers (Gmelch, 1981; Maslach, 1982; Robertson, 1988)
7. Lack of meaning and significance of work (Pines et al., 1981).
8. Absence of follow through and non-intellectual nature of work (Freudenberger, 1977).

9. Lack of variety, lack of work support groups, (Maslach, 1976).
10. No proper accounting of work or procedures, no promotional system, inconsistency of service, inability to work with different personality types (Vash, 1980).
11. Being crowded or understaffed (Gehrman, 1981).
12. Unclear goals and expectations (Robertson, 1988).

The reoccuring theme in organizational factors is the lack of a feature which, if present in the work place, could enhance production and individual job satisfaction:

The lack of control
The lack of influence
The lack of support
The lack of feedback
The lack of recognition
The lack of accomplishment

These deficits create an overwhelming feeling of incompetence, helplessness, and hopelessness. The law of parsonomy suggested that if these qualities were present the individual's flame would burn brightly. Without one or a combination of these factors, the flame will burn out." Although it may be counter productive, the entire organizational climate may serve to precipitate frustration, stress, job dissatisfaction, and low morale (Clouse & Whitaker, p.21)."

Societal Factors

To fully understand burnout, we must look at the role society plays. The political, economical, and social context is an important aspect of burnout (Farber, 1983). Burnout is a complex psychological phenomenon which reflects the features of a larger society. Culture and attitudes toward work and support systems influence the situational response to stress and burnout (Pines, Kafry, & Etzion, 1980). Culture is a cause of burnout - our myths, beliefs, and the way we do things create very stressful situations for the individuals.

The American society has seen tremendous change in the last century. Our culture has evolved from an industrial society to an informational society (Awalt, 1988). We have moved from a world where change was gradual and things took time, to a world of incredible, rapid change. Everything is instant, Today's innovation will be obsolete tomorrow. The world has changed, but the expectations of society have not.

"To achieve excellence, which would in turn lead to material comfort, community respect, position, prestige, compliments, security, and status (Freudenberger and Richelson, 1980, p.2)" has been the American Dream. We came out of the second world war as the major industrial power of the world. The American Dream did not seem possible, it appeared inevitable. Everyone could buy a house and car. Food, education, and medical care was

accesible to all. Work changed from being the central focus to a vehicle to give us more and better leisure time.

During the late 1960's, we lived in the "great society." However, we began to question the structure of the society which ignored civil rights, which participated in causeless wars, and threatened its own environment. Focus changed to "what's in it for me." The society with ever increasing technology was beginning to crumble. Overextension of the credit economy changed the American dream.

By the end of the 1970's, medical care costs were becoming prohibitive. A new family could not afford a house. For the next twenty years, The American dream changed for most to patching what they had, and doing all they could do to keep up. All areas of our culture came under attack. Malpractice suits became common occurance. Our education system proved grossly inadequate. We had come to the point of expecting from our people more than they could provide. Our old expectations had not changed, only increased. As a society, we forgot humans have limitations. Individuals were becoming failures in our own minds.

> In our society it is often undesirable to admit to one's limitations, vulnerabilities, ignorance, and problems, especially in one's work. Professionals are expected to be impeccable and in control. When problems do arise, most people feel at fault, and hide problems from others, feeling everything else is coping effectively and they alone are failing. Result is, what social psychologists call the fallacy of uniqueness, or pluralistic ignorance: the individual's

false assumption that he is the only one responding this way (Pines et al., 1981, p.35).

Freudenberger (1980) believed burnout is caused by the inability to meet externally imposed standards of achievement. Family myths, childhoood orientation, and societal expectation may have set the individual for burnout. The American dream has been for children to accomplish and have more than their parents. Parents worked hard to instill the proper attitude and habits in their children to meet the dream. Children very quickly learn the way to get the attention and support of their elders. They believe to win approval, they must accomplish the superordinary. "Be like your uncle Bob, the doctor." "Any job worth doing, is worth doing right." "If you want a job done right, do it yourself." We are carefully taught what we should do, and are expected to do it (Pines et al., 1981). The plateaus of goals in life continually get higher as one must out perform another. For most of us, we never reach the endpoint - it keeps moving upward. We are carefully taught that perfection is possible, and we should attain it. Perfection becomes our curse, because it is impossible to attain. As we went keep trying, we never seem to get out of Selye's (1976) alarm reaction phase. Even as children, due to societal pressures, we are burning out. Many do.

Some people choose their careers based upon what others wanted. Therefore, after all the preparation, individuals find themselves in jobs they do not like. They are doctors who can't tolerate the sight of blood, lawyers who hate to negotiate, or an accountant who hates math. To make matters worse, in today's society job mobility within, between, and outside organizations has decreased dramatically (Paine, 1982). People are expected to take a job and stay with it. Anyone who changes a job after a short period of time is suspect.

"Society makes it worse by setting very high standards - difficult to achieve and impossible to maintain over a long time (Maslach, 1982, p.25)." Whatever an individual does, it is not special - it is expected. When one does not reach the expectations, criticism abounds. Society has put us in a "lose-lose situation (Maslach, 1982, p.25)". In this society based on the word "No," it does not occur in the minds of people to provide positive feedback. People who need positive reinforcement do not get it. When the public provides no support the stress for burnout is increased. "When there is no outside support for this kind of work, then the struggle to serve and the commitment to care may crumble - and one may burnout completely (Maslach, 1982, p.52)."

The traditional society has rules how we should work, behave, and relate to others. Intense commitment is expected of everyone, whereas it was formally required of only the elite of society (Golemblewski & Munzenrider, 1988, p.9). Our commitment is expected to cope with the escalating pace of life. To make matters worse, although we were taught by our mentors to perform to perfection, we are left out there in the cold world to do it all ourselves. No longer does our society have grandfathers and fathers to lead us through our jobs, because the jobs have changed drastically (Golemblewski & Munzenrider, 1988, p.9). No longer does the rapid change in our society allow the gradual training through apprenticeship. The individual is left to his or her own devices, to go it alone.

In such a crowded, busy world with instant communication our biggest problem is loneliness. The human race experiences extreme stress from loneliness because it has evolve to be a social animal. Man, unlike most animals, has a life stage, called childhood, in which an offspring may learn through trial and error, under protection, the social requirements for a successful life. To be lonely contradicts the basic premise of mankind, thus is very stressful.

The nuclear family has disappeared. Friendships have become temporary, or shallow at best for most of us. There

seems to be no time in our society to develop meaningful relationships and support systems. Because people have less confidants and less control over their work and leisure lives, the current society and its environment is contributing to burnout (Thorne, 1988). The cause of burnout is not confined to the workplace, causes may lie in the quality of one's marriage, family, and intimate social networks (Roberts, 1987). Society plays a major role in promoting burnout.

A comprehensive understanding of burnout requires a framework which includes the variables of the person, the workplace, and the immediate and extended society, and how they interact to change the individual and the individual's attitude for the future. The negative attitude change from the interactions could lead to burnout.

Symptoms of Burnout

How can burnout be recognized? What are the symptoms? What are the danger signs? Burnout is a subtle pattern of symptoms, behaviors, and attitudes which seem to be unique to the individual (Mattingly, 1977).

> Burnout is insidious. It seems to erupt without warning, usually over a trivia event. Actually, it is a chronic condition that builds over a period of weeks or even years. It flashes plenty of warning signals. Typical burnout victims simply fail to heed them (Hall and Wessel, 1990 p.49R).

Freudenberger (1980) states burnout episodes can flare up from nowhere. By the time the symptoms are obvious though, burnout is well underway. It should be noted that burnout should not be confused with stress itself because burnout has unique characteristics (Niehouse, 1987). These characteristics may vary according to the individual and rarely, although possible, does burnout affect all aspects of an individual's life (Pines et al., 1981). "A person who is burning out cannot be diagnosed or identified by a checklist of symptoms (Pierce 1982, p.21)." However, many different signals in various combinations may suggest that a person is on their way, if they haven't already arrived, to complete burnout.

The signs and symptoms of burnout may be divided into three areas; physical, emotional/mental, and organizational. Perlman and Hartman (1980) described the first two categories as "physiological, focusing on physical symptoms: affective-cognitive, focusing on attitudes and feelings, and behavioral, focusing on behaviors symptomatic of burnout (p.4)." Robertson (1988) suggested organizations also may display the symptoms of burnout.

Physical Symptoms

Fatigue or exhaustion (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981; Cherniss, 1980; Pines et al., 1981; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Edelwich and Brodsky, 1980) is a common symptom of burnout.

Individuals from a feeling of "what's the use" tire easily and feel they can go no further (Cherniss, 1980). They have lost their energy. The body has seemed to have lost the inner strength to rally to any action. On the other hand, sleeplessness (Armstrong, 1971; Cherniss, 1980; Kahn, 1978; Pierce, 1982) and the inability to relax (Hall and Wessel, 1990) does not allow the body to get the needed rest thereby increasing the tiredness and lowering the resistance level of the body (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Susceptibility to illnesses (Cherniss, 1980; Freudenberger, 1975; Quick & Quick, 1979) seems to accompany tiredness as a burnout symptom. Illnesses frequently increases with burnout (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981). A Gallop poll in the Wall Street Journal (Blumenthal, 1989) found 25% of the work force has stress-linked illnesses. Burnout people exhibit low resistance to illness (Robertson, 1988). Clouse and Whitaker (1981) listed headaches, nervous tension, back aches, and gastro-intestinal disturbances as symptoms. Pierce (1982) added unfocused body pain and weight gain or loss to the list. Dunlap (1981) stated physical problems from excessive stress included peptic ulcers, arteriosclerosis, colitis, cerebral vascular accident, and even sudden death. High blood pressure (Pierce, 1982) and heart attacks have been identified as related to burnout (Allen, 1982).

Pain and tension (Dubrin et al, 1979; Kahn, 1973) and psychosomatic complaints (Bloch, 1978; Freudenberger, 1975; McLean, 1979) are symptoms of burnout. While tension is easily related to the increased nervous response to stress, pain and psychosomatic complaints are not. However, pains and discomfort in various parts of the body have no physiographic trail, but appear during periods of prolonged intense stress. The only explanation is the parasympathetic and sympathetic systems of the body respond in some complicated way to stress outside the body and create localized body responses we do not fully understand in medicine. If the stress reaction is severe enough or long enough the reserves of the body could be used up and the organism would die (Selye, 1976). Excessive work related stress creates conditions similar to attacks from physical force or disease producing antigens. The body's responses to what may seem to be due to an unidentified pathogen or agent may be, in reality, symptoms of the burnout process.

One behavioral response which causes extreme physical effect with related symptoms is substance abuse. The later stages of burnout have been related to the increasing use of alcohol, tranquilizers, and other drugs (Cherniss, 1980; Dubrin, 1981; Freudenberger, 1975; Maslach 1978; Quick et al. 1990). The effects of drugs create a sundry of deleterious effects on the body including death.

Emotional/Mental Symptoms

Emotional exhaustion is a major symptom of burnout (Cherniss, 1980; Clouse & Whitaker, 1981; Freudenberger, 1975; Levin, 1980; Maslach, 1978; Maslach & Jackson, 1979; Mitchell, 1977; Pines et al. 1981). Although capable, individuals just give up trying. They just go through minimal motions at work (Frey & Young, 1983). They exhibit feelings of helplessness, hopelessness, and a loss of enthusiasm about work and maybe life in general (Pines et al., 1981). The show a loss of caring (Maslach, 1976). They seemed to be overwhelmed (Hall & Wessel, 1990). They may be solemn, introspect, and visibly express an attitude of "what's the use" (Dalzell, 1988). People who are emotionally exhausted have a tendency to be chronically late, and have a high frequency of unexplained absences. They extend work breaks, keep their hand on the door knob, and distance themselves from their clients and colleagues (Pines et al., 1981).

Forms of voluntary isolation are signs of possible burnout. (Alshuler et al., 1980; Freudenberger, 1975; Hall & Wessel, 1990; Lattanzi, 1981; Maslach & Jackson, 1979; Pines and Maslach, 1978). Withdrawal is a form of voluntary isolation in response to frustration is one sign of burnout (Cherniss, 1980). To protect themselves, practitioners adapt an air of detachment, (Frey & Young, 1983) and

communicate impersonally (Maslach, 1976) and distance themselves (Alshuler et al., 1980). They become separate by dehumanizing and labeling their clients (Pines et al., 1981; Maslach, 1976). Ultimately, individuals totally withdraw from people, becoming loners (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981), and feel even more isolated (Levin, 1980a; Hall & Wessel, 1990).

Cynicism and negativity may indicate an individual is in the throes of burnout (Briley, 1980; Clouse and Whitaker, 1981; Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980; Freudenberger, 1977; Maslach, 1976). They ignore people, they shout at them (Pines et al., 1981). With a general negative attitude usually from disillusionment (Frey & Young, 1983), they blame clients and peers for their own problems (Barnes & Crutchfield, 1977; Cherniss, 1980; Gehrman, 1981; Levin, 1980b). They hate and abuse people in general. They become antagonistic (Dalzell, 1988). In developing cynicism and negativism, they have a tendency to be inflexible or downright rigid (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981). They develop a closed mind toward change and exhibit a superior "know it all" attitude (Freudenberger, 1977). Obviously, morale would be very low, and they have lost their sense of humor (Hall & Wessel, 1990), and there is absence of any idealism or commitment (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981). Cynicism may turn to total disgust which is a form of terminal burnout (Alshuler et al., 1980).

Rigidity in the person leads to forms of passivity, another burnout sign (Bloch, 1978; Kahn, 1978). The burned out person just doesn't seem to care. They become quiet, will not interact with peers, and avoid contact in general (Pines et al., 1981). The appear as apathetic "deadwood." They want to be told before acting (Pines et al., 1981). They do the minimal job possible. They may appear bored (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981).

At the other end of the spectrum, aggression may be a sign of burnout (Bach, 1979; Chance, 1981; Organ, 1979). These burned out individuals are easily irritated over the smallest thing. They are angry and have a condescending attitude (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981). Individuals may exhibit an attitude of anarchism and chronic complaint, attacking everything in their way (Vash, 1980). These individuals are impatient, not understanding, and intolerant of others.

Other personal indicators include bouts of depression (Freudenberger, 1977; Pines, et al., 1981), anxiety (Pierce, 1982), loss of self esteem (Cherniss, 1980; Kahn, 1978), the inability to utilize coping mechanisms (Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980), and Conflicts in the marriage or family (Cherniss, 1980; Maslach & Jackson, 1978). Clouse and Whitaker offer additional symptoms related to burnout: over sensitivity, alienation, minimal competence, fatalism, paranoia, and constantly socializing. Maslach (1976) also suggested lost

distinction between personal and work life, avoidance of tense encounters, going by the book or hiding behind the rules, and taking too many unstructured "time outs" such as coffee breaks or trips to the water fountain. Edelwich & Brodsky (1980) suggested decreased professional behavior may be a burnout sign. Levin (1980a) said the unfortunate aspect of burnout is the loss of a sense of humor, and loss of joy in life. Frey and Young (1983) added not keeping up on current literature, using old ineffective methods, and constantly take short cuts or doing half jobs to the list of burnout symptoms.

Organizational Symptoms

Job dissatisfaction is a symptom of burnout (Armstrong, 1971; Freudenberger, 1977; Frew, 1977; Kahn, 1973; Quick & Quick, 1979). This feeling is expressed through a reluctance to go to work, dissatisfaction with one's performance or profession, and growing doubts as to professional career (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981). Job dissatisfaction is closely related to other symptoms, such as low staff morale (Gehrman, 1981), found in the organization. People on the job who display negative, impersonal attitudes toward clients, customers, and patients may be well on the way to burnout (Kahn, 1978; Maslach, 1976). These symptoms can be seen through lack of concern for the client and poor service (Allen, 1982). The ideal of

helping people becomes very difficult to justify in oneself. The alienation of those served affects the individual and the organization in a negative way. Clients receive shoddy service from people who are contemptuous, but who were once eager to help (Chance, 1981).

Associated with the negative outlook is the unprofessional behavior of a burnout oriented person. The role of a professional is to provide expert service to people, to do otherwise, is unprofessional. Burned out professionals go beyond the bounds of professionalism when theyuse labele clients, rather than using their names- "the liver cancer in Room 202," describe items in scientific and less personal terms, stand away from clients, avoid eye contact, communicate in impersonal ways, and simply stay away from clients (Maslach, 1976).

Decreased involvement is a sign of burnout by staff (Bardo, 1979; Chance, 1981; Edelwich & Brodsky, 1980; Freudenberger, 1977; Maslach & Jackson, 1978). It is another form of withdrawal. "The great escape person" (Dalzell, 1988) tries to escape getting involved in his job. He or she does anything else to avoid direct job responsibility. They are hard to find. They act only after being told to act, and they do the absolute minimum which will avoid being fired.

Burnout people also exhibit other forms of unproductive activit, such as excessive criticism, rumor spreading, theft, chronic complaining, and conducting personal business at work (Van Wagoner, 1987). Clouse and Whitaker (1981) include expressing being inadequate and being overwhelmed by tasks, not distinguishing between professional and personal life, withdrawing from activities previously rewarding, and undervaluing or overvaluing one's professional priorities and capabilities. Dalzell (1988) added the person who changes schedules drastically without reason and spends inordinate time on a subject, or the person who loses all pride in grooming and hygiene habits, and becomes very sloppy in dress and habits. Accident proneness may indicate burnout as the person who loses concentration becomes negligent and create accidents.

Looking at the organization as a whole, certain features indicate a prevalence of burnout among its workers. Bureaucratic "run-arounds, and poor decision making are burnout signs (Allen, 1982). Clouse and Whitaker (1981) suggested several organizational burnout symptoms:

1. Authoritarian leadership style
2. Centralized decision making process
3. Conflicting philosophies
4. Conflicting objectives
5. Bureaucratic policies and procedures
6. Lack of problem solving techniques
7. Poor communications
8. Centralized power and control

Absenteeism and tardiness has been suggested as symptoms (Bardo, 1979; Cherniss, 1980; Maslach & Pines, 1978). In addition to excessive absenteeism and tardiness, people may take long, unscheduled breaks (Van Wagoner, 1987), and never seem to be in or out. Organizations which are burning out, or are burned out display increased tardiness and absenteeism (Gehrman, 1981).

Burnout is a cause of for turnover (Cherniss, 1980; Dubrin, et al., 1979; Gehrman, 1981; Levin, 1980b; Maslach and Jackson, 1981; Pines et al., 1981). Studies by Roberts (1985) indicated working conditions are major factors for people leaving their jobs. Although turnover is a symptom of serious concern, some burned out people leave other ways which may create greater problems. Some burned out people leave their profession, some change jobs in the organization, some climb up the administrative ladder. Many may never quit, they become "Deadwood" (Pines et al., 1981).

The symptoms of burnout are numerous and varied. They are usually unique to the individual. Burnout symptoms may be observed alone, but more likely in combination with other signs. The symptoms are very subtle and once they are easily recognized it means burnout is in an advanced stage. Just as individuals may burnout, organizations, which may be made up of burned out employees, may experience burnout.

Treatment and Prevention

How do we deal with burnout? How do we care for and treat those who are burning out, or already burned out? What strategies may be employed to cope with the threat of burnout? What measures can we take to prevent burnout? "Earnest awareness of burnout is not enough - we must take responsibility without guilt- and design strategies to cope (Pines et al., 1981, p.115)."

Burnout is treatable, it can be prevented. Although the trends in the present workplace may force more individuals to burnout (Cherniss, 1980), many of these people can be salvaged and become contributors to their profession (Freudenberger, 1977). People who are burning out or have burned out are not mentally ill, and usually do not require extensive counseling or therapy. They need short term support oriented to the realities of burnout (Freudenberger (1977).

Paine (1982) presented a relevant view of addressing burnout. There is no single "magic bullet" for burnout. Because burnout is an ecological dysfunction, corrective actions may come from multiple sources. Solutions can be complex with a myriad of variations (Farber, 1983). A wide variety of specific techniques and strategies have been proposed to deal with burnout. However, stress requires correctives, cosmetics won't do (Moretz, 1989). It is

difficult to relate the coping mechanisms without a coherent framework (Paine, 1982). To be most effective, each prescription should be based on the individual's needs, strengths, and weaknesses in relationship to the particular situation. In many job situations, high levels of stress are integral and unavoidable part of work (Paine, 1982). Similarly, the ability to cope with complexity, ambiguity, conflict, and competing demands is assumed to exist when individuals take over high stress positions (Paine, 1982). It is the imbalance between expectations and performance that interventions must be designed to change (Paine, 1982).

What can be done at the primary site of intervention? Paine (1982) outlined the general process for stress management:

1. Identification - techniques for the analysis and evaluation of the incidence, prevalence, and characteristics of burnout in individuals, groups, or organizations.

2. Prevention - attempts to prevent burnout before it begins.

3. Mediation - procedures to reduce, slow, reverse, or stop the burnout process

4. Remediation - techniques to help individuals already burned out or quickly approaching that stage.

The techniques used for the treatment of burnout and prevention overlap; the many forms of treatment can also be used to prevent burnout and vice versa. Farber (1983) suggested solutions can be divided into two categories:

"problem focused" by taking action on one's own, and "emotionally focused" which is the mediation of feelings. He and Farber (1983) suggested solutions may occur at any of four levels: individual, group, organizational, or societal. Paine (1982) suggested solutions may be mediational or remediational and interventions may be targeted at specific levels. He said the four most important sites are:

1. Individual - interventions designed to strengthen the individual's ability to deal with job related stress.

2. Interpersonal - attempts to strengthen the interpersonal relations or work group dynamics to decrease stress or deal with the level of stress.

3. The work place - modifications in the immediate work environment to reduce or deflect stress in some way.

4. Organizational - changes in policies, procedures, or structures intended to deal with organizational factors related to burnout.

I would propose that a fifth site:

5. Society - changes in the expectations, images, and myths held by the general populace regarding the work. Interventions may include laws and government supervision.

Care and Treatment

Marcus Aurelius said, "If you are pained by an external thing, it is not the thing that disturbs you, but your own judgment about it. And it is in our power to wipe out this judgment now (Mengerink, 1990, p.37)." It is within our power and authority to correct burnout. All we need to do is realize it, and exercise our authority and take control

over that which we can control. There is an quote from the Holy Bible, "physician, heal thyself." In dealing with the problem of burnout, one must start with the consideration of the individual (Paine, 1982). Rogers (1987) suggested burnout is an individual problem which must use unique methods based on the cause, incidence and personal coping strategies and resources. "The causes of burnout are easy to define but tricky to execute because they require breaking old habits (Hall & Wessel, 1990, p.35R)."

Individual

Robert Ellis, (cited in Wallis, 1983) stated, "Rule number one is, don't sweat the small stuff. Rule number two is, it's all small stuff. And if you can't fight and can't flee, flow (p.48)."

Pines and others (1981) offered four major strategies for dealing with burnout. The first step is the indivdual becoming aware of the problem. Next, the individual must take responsibility for doing something about the problem and achieving some degree of clarity in the reality of the situation. Finally, one should develop new tools for coping with and improving the quality of experience. They said the first step in correcting the problem is to stop asking what is wrong with oneself, but to ask what is wrong with the situation.

Greenwood and Greenwood (1979) gave their suggestions for the treatment of burnout. One should get a thorough physical exam to make sure one is fit. Follow the doctor's orders. Take an inventory of one's psychological strengths and weaknesses. If necessary, go into group therapy. One should identify and make a list of specific internal and environmental stressors to which one is susceptible, and describe the nature of one's reaction to the stressors. One should etermine one's optimal stress level which is the level of maximum creativity and production without undue adverse affect.

Furthermore, Greenwood and Greenwood (1979), said the individual must take responsibility in four areas. One must learn about burnout and how it can affect individuals. One must develop a process for monitoring personal levels of stress and burnout. One must develop effective coping mechanisms to deal with job related stress. One should get others in the workplace to work with him or her to deal with the problem of burnout.

In Ocean racing, one of the biggest fears is becoming seasick. It makes a mess, renders the individual ineffective, and jeopardizes the success of the adventure. The oldest and most effective treatment for seasickness is to sit in the shade of an oak tree. In other words, get far away from all the action and the contributing factors to

one's plight. Borelli (1988) suggests the treatment for stress and burnout begins with a pause. "We must stop and recognize we are running out of gas with both the accelerator and brake pushed to the floor (p.21)." Once we stop and get away to a quiet, non-intrusive place, we need to take a complete inventory of ourselves and the situation." We need to listen. What is our body telling us? Have we been ignoring the signs of stress? How much is enough? When do we need to take time out (Borelli, 1988, p.21)?" Borelli continued, once we have taken an inventory of our stress, we have to decide how to take better care of ourselves. "Stop and listen several times a day - you will be pleasantly surprised at the improvement in the quality of your work, your relationships, and your life (Borelli, 1988, p.41)."

To begin the process of treatment, one must know and accept oneself as he or she is. One must recognize that one has limitations (Davidson, 1989), as well as abilities. Individuals should recognize and accept those things they can control, and to what degree, and those things they can't control. One should set priorities of importance and adapt coping strategies which will make one's choices worthy of one's time (Davidson, 1989).

Pine and others (1981) listed several variables to consider in coping with the burnout problem. How does one

Learn about the problem and how to cope with it - this learning need not be formal. How can one change one's life of work to provide meaning and significance. What kind of success and achievement could create energy and enthusiasm in the individual? One should consider variety, breaking the routine and see oneself more positively. In seeking self actualization, one may consider matching high expectations with realistic attainment. Finally, one should seek "flow experiences," in which one may release internal pressures.

Snow (1989) offered several techniques for reducing and overcoming the effects of burnout. Learn how to say "no" more often. Keep a list of one's accomplishments. Do things which will break the routine. Develop interests outside of work. Maintain sound health habits, and create a positive attitude.

"Take control of your physical fitness (Muller, 1989, p.30)." Develop good health habits. Eat right - there is an old saying, "you are what you eat." Don't rush or skip your meals. Follow a regular well-balanced diet to insure you are getting al the nutrients and vitamins you need to perform at your peak. If you need to lose weight, do it sensibly.

A good nutritional diet is important to keeping the body strong and the mind alert. Exercise effectively. Develop a

regular routine of physical activities which will make your body strong, flexible, and durable. Proper exercise not only improves all the systems of the body, it is an excellent way to reduce or remove tension. For example, Joggers, whose bodies during exercise produces endorphins which create a general feeling of well-being, find the day seems to flow after a good morning run. Even during a tense situation, taking a short exercise break helps reduce the pressure (Jefferson, 1987). Although it may seem difficult, one should get up briskly in the morning, take care of hygiene and dress well. Good grooming and dressing habits helps one to feel better. Looking good helps one to feel important, in control, keep a positive outlook. Finally, as part of taking care of oneself, the individual should get adequate rest. Rest and relaxation has restorative factors important during stressful times.

Other coping strategies include mediation, taking mental and physical vacations from work, and doing something enjoyable which is not related to work. Maslach (1982) talked about "breaking away." She suggested the following steps:

1. One should take a short pause -slow down- "just a moment."
2. Take one's coffee breaks, lunches - get away from the job.
3. One should not do overtime.

4. When things get difficult or frustrating one should withdraw from the situation - get away.

5. One should downshift - do an easier job while someone else takes over (p.93)

Maslach (1982) continued reminding individuals they should recognize that home and work are different environments and a special transition from one to the other is needed. One must learn how to "Decompress (p.101)." Give some solitary time to oneself as one leaves one world and enters the other, and do not entertain anything negative, only positive thoughts. One may find a activity like art, reading, napping, bathing, getting a massage, or exercising. Maslach reminds us by a line from a song by John Lennon and Paul McCartney, "Slow down - your moving way too fast (p.101)." If possible, take a sabbatical until one can put the problem in perspective and develop effective coping mechanisms (Maslach, 1982). Hypnosis, biofeedback, meditation, and other mind power exercises help fight stress and burnout (Bishop, 1988; Frew, 1977; Lora, 1989; Reed, 1984; Robertson, 1988).

One of the most effective coping strategies is doing a better job at work. "Effective performance can overcome frustration and lead to valued outcomes (Robertson, 1988, p.30)." Instead of trying to do everything poorly, it may be better to do less better (Head, 1989). One should strike a balance between expectation and ability within the constraints. One should seek a balance between involvement

and detachment which would benefit the client, the organization, and oneself. Take care of yourself first because if you are not "o.k.", everyone will suffer negative consequences. One should not look to others for recognition of one's efforts. Instead, one should provide oneself with a number of internal and material rewards for little accomplishments (Brissie, Hoover-Dempsey, & Bassler, 1988).

If an individual is already burned out, Kew (1985) suggests one should get immediate professional help because psychological and professional counseling can help one to rebuild one's system. He suggests a support group of friends may help get one through the worst. They may give one good advice. If nothing else, the friends can listen which, in itself, helps lessen pressure. Finally, one should seek career counseling to determine if one should continue in their present role. If not, the counseling can help provide alternative avenues of employment which might better suit the individual.

One coping mechanism, not mentioned in the literature except as possible abuse, is the pharmo-psychological treatment of burnout. Many people seek short term relief from stress through alcohol, coffee, smoking, and various sedatives which can produce long term negative effects on individuals. The use of drugs, found in most other areas of mental health, can be an effective tool against the ravages

of burnout. If administered properly, drugs may reduce the stress artificially for just enough time to allow the individual to develop other coping mechanism. However, one must be careful not to become dependent on the drugs for the relief - this could lead to addiction and just "numbing out". The problems have not been solved but probably increased by one's inability to deal with the situation in a positive manner. Unfortunately, we are currently a society which over "Vallumed, Thorazined, Percodaned, Darvoned," alcoholed, or anesthetized, and the burnout continues to increase. Although anti-depressants help temporarily, for the long term, we have other more beneficial alternatives, such as education and support systems.

One side benefit of effectively treating burnout is the possible development of a whole new lifestyle - one in which one may recognize the stressors, and employ coping strategies which promote a rich enjoyable life experience. Without new successful coping strategies, individuals will encounter frustration and failure, and run the risk of repeated burnout.

Overall, one may minimize distress and burnout through a persistent, yet realistic, positive attitude. One should look for the enjoyable aspects, no matter how small, in the situation or in the outside world. Enjoy life, and yourself.

"A large dose of self-acceptance and openess to all aspects of the human experience is the ultimate cure for burnout (Hall & Wessel, 1990, p.35R)."

Some people have suggested individual coping may have very little impact on burnout (Paine, 1982). Individual change not matched by organizational change is often ineffective in the long run, and may be counterproductive.

If it is obvious the individual and the job do not fit, nor will changes probably improve the fit, it may mean the individual should change jobs. Maslach (1982) suggests one should not go into the same type of job situation. One should plan the move well and make sure, before moving, the change will be for the better. It may mean a change in one's profession. She reminds that quitting may be costly, financially and psychologically, so carefully consider alternatives. If burnout is inevitable in the present job, despite all coping mechanisms, find a new job!

Organizational

The work environment is another important point of intervention. Specific work related features may be modified to reduce the threat of burnout (Paine, 1982). The heavy toll of burnout on workers in organizations today clearly indicates the urgent need for interventions. The way to reduce the burnout process is to correct all the

deficits in the work place. Installing all the factors which are lacking could promote job satisfaction and productivity. Because the causes of burnout are multi-faceted and interconnected, a single change could have multiple positive effects (Greeenwood & Greenwood, 1979).

Maslach (1982) suggested a number items to improve the workplace:

1. The organization must recognize burnout as a real serious problem.
2. The organization may obtain more resources -staff, money, time, facilities, and equipment - to make the work load less stressful.
3. The organization may provide a better division of labor.
4. The organization may rearrange job assignments, and institute job rotation to provide less routinization and more variety.
5. The organization may change operating procedures sensitive to the needs of the workers.
6. The organization may provide clear and realistic objectives and expectations, while limiting job spill over.
7. The organization may provide mental health days, allowing workers to just get away from the stress,
8. The organization may provide training and workshops on how to deal with the stress (p.119).

Greenwood and Greenwood (1979) said organizations have certain responsibilities regarding burnout. Organizations should incorporate in their policies the positive intent to reduce the stress level of all those subject to undue stress. The organization should include a plan to revise

their procedures for achieving specific objectives of stress reduction consistent with overall goals. This may include counseling, financial assistance and technical assistance to the workers. Organizations must properly place individuals in the right position to develop maximum work satisfaction from their accomplishments. Organizations should monitor the incidence of stress, the effectiveness of intervention programs, and the cost of corrective procedures relevant to the cost of burnout.

Organizations are in a position to take advantage that work is a necessity of most people, but they should provide an environment of challenge and opportunity. Organizations should examine their personnel policies and working conditions, identifying the stressors and working to remove those elements which create a stressful environment. Organizations should identify opportunities to obtain benefits from eustressors and maintain a general organizational climate which maximizes creativity and productivity, while minimizes distress. Recognizing that stress is normal, organizations should develop plans and procedures to maintain optimal stress levels.

The workload may be high if proper training, support among peers and superiors, participatory decision making, and positive feedback exists in the organization. Cherniss (1980) suggested that implementing basic structural changes

in bureaucratic organizations could reduce or eliminate burnout. Bureaucracies are amoral when it comes to the workers. They do not consider, much less disregard, the needs of the worker in their operation. By focusing on the workplace needs of the people and developing programs to combat burnout, productivity would increase.

Pines and others (1981) identified workshops and support groups, where people can speak their difference, as excellent for breaking the burnout cycle. However, Paine (1982) raised some interesting ethical questions. What is the legitimate role of an organization in dealing with burned out employees? What are the rights of employees to confidentiality when involved in employee assistance programs. Maslach (1982) suggests organizations may provide help through education, support and recognition programs through supervisors. She also suggested organizations could provide special groups for complaints and gripes. The organization can provide health coverage for psychological therapy and counseling. Finally, Maslach suggested providing recognition and support services to the family of the worker.

One area of concern is that professional training may increase one's vulnerability to burnout (Paine, 1982). The organization, by providing training, may give the worker the impression that the organization is willing to change. If

that expectation is not met, the resulting frustration may accelerate the burnout process. Whatever the organization "sells" to its employees, it must "Deliver."

Groups

Maslach (1982) presented a social approach to burnout control in which the benefits are numerous. One may receive support from peers and friends, through informal groups, support groups, and socializing. Peers and friends can help an individual get out of, or through, a tough situation. The groups may provide comfort, giving a shoulder to cry on or a friendly audience which listens. Groups can provide insight by giving the individual a new perspective. The group may offer compassion by letting the individual know that oneself is not the only person who feels a certain way. Groups may provide rewards by giving praise, and compliments for a job well done.

The elements to consider in the social approach include that one must get in touch with one's colleagues, that trust is critical among the members of the group, that the group needs a strong, involving leader, and that the group must have and protect open and honest communication. People will do as a group what they could not justify as an individual (Maslach, 1982). It is important to avoid certain pitfalls of the social approach: avoid "bitch" sessions, avoid

confrontation sessions, and overcome the resistance to the entire group participating (Maslach, 1982).

Greenwood and Greenwood (1979) proposed the individual should examine the nature of the group with which one associates. He recommends joining a group which maintains a mature approach to all of its activities, and where interpersonal relationships will probably promote a mature attitude on the part of its membership, thereby reducing stress levels.

Groups may be very beneficial in combating burnout. The support system provides a mean to blow off tension and anger, to understand frustration and helplessness, and a comfort that you are not fighting the problem alone.

Societal

Society is slow to change because cultures hold tightly to the way they have always done things. However, over the last two decades, many people have come to recognize the problem of burnout. Organizations have been much slower than individuals to recognize burnout, although the cost has been felt. With continued research and education, I predict burnout will become an issue addressed by our society as a whole and government will investigate, legislate and "watchdog" burnout as a major economic and human threat.

We will look to society helping more in prevention than in treatment of burnout. However, Government and non-profit agencies could keep close supervision over organizations and the workplace to identify, and demand removal of, excessive stress. They could also provide support services, counseling, and education to burnout victims - just as they do for any other national emergency.

Summary

Attempts to alleviate burnout must occur at all levels personal, organizational, group, and societal because the sources of burnout occur on all levels. Little is known about the long term patterns of burnout, and it is not known if a person can burnout repeatedly in a job, during a career, or if it occurs in phases with discrete stages. However, there is hope for those of us who have burned out. "People who have experienced burnout and who have overcome it almost invariably wind up in a fuller, more exciting life space than if they had not experienced burnout at all (Pines et al. 1981, p.3)." "There is life after career burnout (Kew, 1985, p.5)."

Prevention

"An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure."

Maslach (1982) suggests we should use solutions before there is a problem. We should be equipped to detect the

first sign of burnout by developing early warning systems. Of course, trust and respect is needed, so individuals will not try to mask their feelings. Periodic reviews should be done to see how things are going. Surveys like the Maslach Burnout Inventory or the Burnout Assessment Inventory should be administered on a regular basis. Burnout information should be required part of any professional training. Interpersonal skills should be taught and learned. For example, How to start, stop, and keep things going; how to deal effectively with people, and how to talk about sensitive issues, such as money, failure, and blame.

Paine (1982) stated the burn out stress syndrome may be linked directly to the area of health promotion, wellness, and disease prevention. To deal effectively with the prevention of burnout requires a holistic perspective. Lazarus (1974) mentioned two avenues to deal with burnout: One may manage the environment by taking direct action. One may attempt to reduce the disturbance when one can't change the environment or the action is too costly to the individual. Again, how does one handle stress and burnout? A\s Pines and others (1981) suggest:

1. Be aware of the problem.
2. Take responsibility for action.
3. Discover the possibilities for doing something about. It.
4. Develop some degree of cognitive clarity.

5. Revamp old ways of coping, find new ones (p.9).

Sparks and Ingram (1979) said to cope one must first recognize and understand that stress is inevitable and not necessarily bad. One should know distress may be produced by a large variety of stressors, and self-awareness must precede the creation of a stress management plan. Finally, they suggest stress management may directly attack the causes of distress, strengthen the mediating program, or diminish the impact of stress.

Most of the coping strategies for treatment of burnout may be equally applied to prevention, except in a strategic, rather than a reactive mode. The levels on which to focus prevention are the same as for the care and treatment of burnout: Individual, organization, group and societal.

Individual

Farber (1983) stated committed people need to avoid burnout by having certain items identified in their lives. He suggested the establishment of realistic, clear, well-defined goals consistent with one's values and priorities. One should identify reliable milestones that would reflect the attainment of some sort of growth goals. The individual shouldcreate a set of sequential steps which would lead to long term growth goals. Procedures should be

developed to gather and interpret data on short term progress indicators. Finally, one should create strategies for adjusting their pursuit of long term goals based upon the data collected about short term indicators.

The key to preventing burnout is "control." "What's more important is how much control we believe we have. To quote Norman Vincent Peale, 'what we believe can come true' (Borelli, 1988,p.21)." Our sense of self and well-being is based on "who, what, and how" controls our environment. Therefore, all preventive measures are permeated by the concept of control.

Goodwin (1988) suggests that the individual should concentrate on oneself first and foremost in preventing burnout because all other strategies are interrelationship concerns that will work if the individual is "ok." "Although you have many responsibilities and others depend on you, you are at your peak when you take care of yourself first. Take care of yourself and you can take care of others, and take care of business (Borelli, 1988, p.41)."

First of all, know thyself and like thyself (Maslach, 1982; Borelli, 1988). It is critical to burnout prevention. Maslach (1982) suggests one should ask the following questions:

1. What is your level of self concept, esteem and confidence? The less you have the more prone you are to stress and burnout.

2. What are your limits and responsibilities? What are your strong points, weaknesses, range of capabilities? What are the limits? The less you have, the more vulnerable you are. If you fail to recognize your limitations, you are in real trouble.

3. What are your needs for approval and acceptance? How much do you need to be needed, liked, or approved of? What is the level of your fear of rejection? The more you depend on others for gratification the more vulnerable you are (p.63).

Maslach (1982) continues by stating one should know oneself to be able to execute introspection and understand what one is feeling and why. One must carefully consider one's feelings. One should examine and analyze one's, patterns of response. However, a word of caution: self analysis should be constructive not destructive (p.98). It is important in burnout prevention to take the time out to analyze oneself and not wait to do it at a time of crisis (Pines et al., 1981). One should know how much control one needs (Borelli, 1988).

While taking an inventory of oneself, the individual must remember only God is perfect. Very few people have been able to walk on water. The individual must accept the fact that he or she make mistakes (Dunham, 1983). One should acknowledge and accept one's limitations and weaknesses (Pines et al. 1981, p.164). One should be aware of and accept one's own stress limits (Brown and Carleton, 1980), and weaknesses. The individual should remember they

already have all the faculties to lead a peaceful, productive life - it is all based on how we perceive the world and chose to use our resources. Borelli (1988) made a suggestion to the individual on getting a head start over burnout, "become more familiar with the inner workings of yourself, and the startling relationship between what you think/believe and how you feel (p.41)." One should have conduct a close examination of their expectations and acquire a firm understanding of one's motivation to maintain commitment and enthusiasm (Clouse & Whitaker, 1981). "Become your own best friend ... learn self forgiveness - everyone makes mistakes (Hall & Wessel, 1990, p35R)." Know thyself, accept thyself, like thyself, heal thyself.

Pines and others (1981) suggests after taking an inventory the following coping techniques would help prevent burnout:

1. Set and clarify priorities. One should determine what is important to oneself and to the job. Know what can and cannot be changed, One must carefully allocate their time to potentially successful venture -time is a precious limited resource.
2. Set realistic goals; therefore, avoiding certain failure and frustration.
3. Acknowledge one's weaknesses, limitations. Accept them.
4. Recognize one's own burnout signs. Then take time off, get away from the stressors (p.164).

Maslach (1982) adds setting specific goals and each day working a specific lists of accomplishments.

Physical.

One may maintain a feeling of control by actually taking control of one's own life. Truch (1980) recommended The "READ" stress maintenance program: "R"- relaxation, "E" - exercise, "A"- attitude (positive), "D" - diet. One should learn and implement all the elements of good health. Hall & Wessel (1990) recommend the first physical strategy to prevent burnout is to get regular physical exams and begin a regimen of good nutrition, relaxation, and exercise. It is important to be in good physical shape (Pines et al., 1981). Many researchers (Brown & Carleton, 1980; Maslach, 1982; Mitler & Allen-Hausman, 1981; Pines et al., 1981; Reed, 1984; Zacek, 1989) suggest a good exercise program can improve one's general health, and according to Robertson (1988) helps the body to return to a relaxed state after stress response. Diet is another important buffer to burnout (Ornish, 1982; Reese, 1988; Maslach, 1982; Pines et al., 1981). Good nutrition is important in keeping the body resources in good shape (Ornish, 1982) with peak energy. One should eat well.

Rest and relaxation are effective preventative mechanisms for stress and burnout (Benson, 1974; Maslach, 1982; Mitler & Allen-Hausman, 1981; Pines et al., 1981; Reese, 1988; Simmons, 1989; Wood, 1987). Pines and others (1981) suggests the establishment of a "decompression" time

after work. Take a period of time to make a transition away from the concerns in work and the rest of your day. Techniques of decompression may be exercise or just a quiet time sitting in the back yard. Benson (1974) suggested four elements to decompress or relax. One should seek a quiet environment, get in a comfortable position, assume a passive attitude and employ a mental device to relax. Benson recommends one should take these relaxation breaks in place of coffee breaks.

Getting away from the work for intermittent breaks and rest periods are good preventative measures (Greenwood and Greenwood, 1979; Maslach, 1982; Pines et al., 1981). Goodwin (1988) proposes taking a vacation daily with five to ten minute breaks just to get away from the area of concentration and relax momentarily. One may get away mentally, if not physically, to keep stress from causing burnout. It is also importnt to develop a life away from work (Zable and Zable, 1980) and keep the two worlds separate.

Maslach (1982) suggested one practice rest and relaxation regularly. She outlined techniques of rest and relaxation into relaxation techniques, biofeedback techniques and imagery techniques. Relaxation techniques include activities, such as a deep muscle relaxation drill in which the individual focuses on each area of the body,

tensing then totally relaxing the muscles in that area. The instant relaxation drill is taking five deep breaths and then creating a pleasant thought for five seconds. Mental relaxation techniques includes exercises, such as biofeedback and meditation. Biofeedback (Maslach, 1982; O'Sullivan, 1988; Reed, 1984) has been recognized as an effective preventative technique. Meditation has been found to be an excellent relaxation response to stress (Bishop, 1988; Frew, 1977; Lora, 1989; Reed, 1984) Play and recreation from poker to camping, from aerobic dancing to zen, from racing to croquet are commonly accepted means of relaxation to get away from stresses of work. Other techniques suggested to alleviate stress and avoid burnout include listening to tibetan bells (Sullivan, 1987), howling at the moon (Under Pressure, 1989), visiting spas (Koral, 1989), hypnosis (Robertson, 1988), trampoline therapy (Dumaine, 1988), and using a computer program that monitors well-being (Berger, 1987).

The most difficult burnout prevention device for committed professionals is loafing (Greenwood & Greenwood, 1979). Greenwood and Greenwood suggest that one may benefit from a short period of doing nothing and wandering around. Loafing involves complete freedom from efforts of any kind, any schedules activities, or any constructive thinking. They suggest loafing is probably the most effective form of diversion for professionals under high levels of stress.

One of life's elements is "tempo," which is the pace of existence (Greenwood & Greenwood, 1979). It is the periodicity of our lives. Tempo is keeping step with the sound of one's drummer. Greenwood and his son suggested individuals should keep time in life as ones does in music. They continued by recommending one should keep a balance between work and play: One should find adequate time for a variety of activities; recreation, exercise, education, self-improvement, and rest. Pacing oneself (Dunham, 1983) is an effective burnout preventive.

Personal.

Snow (1989), identifies several stress prevention techniques. Learn when to say "no" to more work. Keep a list of one's accomplishment and look at it regular. Do different things to break the routine. Finally, he suggested one may cultivate a positive outlook. Hall and Wessel (1990) suggested other personal strategies:

1. Establish closeness with oneself and others.
2. Take time to establish relationships.
3. Learn to risk, honor, forgive, celebrate, apologize, to need and be needed, to love and be loved, to hurt, to be kind, and above all to feel what one feels.
4. A large dose of self acceptance and openess (p.35R).

Time with family and friends is an important buffer to burnout. Although they may not understand the stress in the

workplace, they can be strong buffers to stress. They like, listen, and support the individual regardless of fault.

Maslach (1982) suggests one should work smarter, not harder. One should change the way one does things at work. If one must do the same job all the time, do it differently - get out of the rut. One should ask what parts of the job can be changed, how can the hours be reshuffled, and how can one attain a greater sense of autonomy and freedom. Then, setting priorities into action is an effective tool to combat burnout (Price, 1989).

Attitude.

Clouse and Whitaker (1981) stated it is important to assume a positive attitude. Maintaining a healthy attitude and behavior with positive thoughts are much better for the individual than negative thoughts (Goodwin, 1988). Goodwin suggests one should start each day with a positive goal reminding oneself that the day is going to be a good one because the goals will achieved. A proper attitude is especially important in establishing a balance between concern and over-involvement (Maslach, 1982). Maslach (1982) stated one should care for oneself, as well as for others. In accenting the positive, one should pay attention to one's accomplishments, counting up all the things which have gone well. The individual should elicit positive responses from others but don't depend on them. One may

make good feedback happen, ask for it and make it appropriate to do so. Individuals should find good experiences outside of work. Finally, Individuals should try to always be with positive people. Accordingly, she suggested that the individual take things less personally. When things get tough, step back and be objective about the problem. Leave one's work at work, don't get over involve. Maslach (1982) and Allen (1989) suggests one should be empathetic but not sympathetic. Understanding the problem, one should not get emotionally wrapped up in the problem. Pines and others (1981) offered that another effective buffer to burnout is not looking to others for praise. Goodwin (1988) suggested one should compliment or reward oneself regularly. He suggests an individual should reassure oneself frequently because others may not be so prompt. Finally, Goodwin (1988) said one should celebrate regularly, even if in a small way. One should look for alternative sources of positive reinforcement and reward, thereby attaining a sense of success from the work itself.

Hall and Wessel (1990) offered the following attitudinal strategies:

1. Revaluate one's expectations. Make them realistic and attainable with effort.
2. Learn to accept one's limits, and exploit one's gifts.
3. Maintain a realistic positive attitude, while not deluding oneself

4. Listen to oneself. Determine how one feels.

5. One should relabel the way one thinks about things. One should change "have to" to "choice," "should" to "may." One should ignore "Be perfect," "never fail," and "maintain your image."

6. Humor, if one has lost it, resurrect it (p.35R).

Humor is a very effective burnout preventative (Carlson, 1989; Freudenberger, 1977; Goodwin, 1988; Greenwood & Greenwood, 1979; House, 1989; Maslach, 1982; Myers, 1989; Oertel, 1989; Pines et al., 1981). As committed, driven professionals, individuals tend to take life and their work too seriously. There is a saying, "You can't take life too seriously, because you will never get out of it alive." One would find great value in developing the habit of looking for examples of humor in each situation (Greenwwod & Greenwood, 1979). Use humor as a diversion from stress, it is a great tension buster. Humor breaks down interpersonal barriers (Oertel, 1989), making individuals feel more accepting and "in sync" with others. It facilitates accomplishment by making everyone less stressed and more efficient (Greenwood & Greenwood, 1979). Greenwood and Greenwood suggested a well - balanced humor contributes to an appropriate balance of emotion during activities and is effective as a regulator of change. Goodwin suggested one to sharpen one's sense of humor until it is well honed and has a sense of the ridiculous. Humor, as long as it promotes laughing "with" another and not "at" another, is an effective coping mechanism. It helps keep

the doctor away (Myers, 1989). Laughter can increase productivity and creativity (Carlson, 1989).

Other attitudinal strategies which help reverse burnout include deciding to surprise oneself and some one else unexpectedly to get out of the rut of daily routine (Goodwin, 1989). Goodwin also suggests actually doing something for others to help them reduce their burden, but be careful not to overdo it. Help peers and employees to set their own goals. Practice open compliments, and private criticisms - compliments need fresh air to grow in, criticisms need confinement for repair. Set high standards for one's own personal behavior, self confidence, and outlook as an example for others.

Structure.

Structure gives an individual a sense of control (Hall & Wessel, 1990). The best way to create structure is to write a plan, read it and implement it with regular evaluation and revision. Planning provides definition, clarity, and reduces uncertainty which gives the feeling of some control over one's life. The process of unifying one's abilities, values, expectations and goals into step by step activities helps the individual to deal with periods of uncertainty and reinforces commitment and enthusiasm. The plan should have two parts: one's long term goals and short term activities toward those goals. The plan should orient

the individual to think through the past, but work for the future, allowing focus on future challenges, rather than previous outcomes (Goodwin, 1988). In the plan, one should clearly record the mission and goal of one's employment (Goodwin, 1988) and one's personal and family goals. The plan should try to translate one's goals into specific objectives (Greenwood & Greenwood, 1979). A short term plan of action should include how one will face a problem, monitor stress, employ coping strategies to reduce stress and promote commitment, challenge, and control.

The plan provides a basis for our decisions. The plan should provide support to make hard decisions and stick with them (Goodwin 1988). The plan may help one to say "no!" The plan will help one to identify and understand one's values. It will help an individual priortise and organize one's activities. It will provide a checklist for accomplishment. Plans can be changed, even in mid-career, and should be regularly reviewed and adjusted to meet current needs and future goals. There is a common saying in success training programs, "plan your work, and work your plan."

Over the long haul, Goodwin (1988) suggested the individual should find a new skill to keep oneself excited, besides it may provide new opportunities. He continued by proposing the individual compliment oneself for discipline and accomplishment, even for a job or project one does not

want to do. If the job is not right for the individual, one should plan a fall back position in the case of a job loss (Zanderer & Fox, 1987). If the situation is bad enough, there is nothing wrong in leaving - find a new job which more closely matches your abilities, and hopes.

Organizational

Organizations may help prevent burnout among it's workers by providing elements which seems to be absent in burnout prone environments:

1. Good working conditions and physical environment.
2. Clear, realistic, well-defined expectations and goals.
3. Training and advancement opportunities.
4. Meaning and significance to each role.
5. Reduction of stress to levels for optimum performance.
6. Recognition and positive feedback for work performance.
7. Support systems and rewards.
8. "Escape" mechanisms.
9. Participation in deciding the present and future of the organization.

Golemblewski (cited in Paine, 1982), said organizations must seek interventions consistent with their needs and philosophies which would maximize production. Accordingly, he stated policies, procedures, and structures must be changed to reduce job stress. He acknowledged that very

little systematic work had been done by organizations in this area. He asserted preventive measures may be costly and the changes in themselves will be stressful in the short run, but the longer term effects will benefit the individuals and the organization.

the work environment

The physical environment and working conditions of the work place may be important burnout preventives (Maslach, 1982; Pines et al., 1981). Organizations must recognize their responsibility to provide a safe and healthy work place - this logic applies equally to preventing unnecessary stress from the environmental conditions (Paine, 1982). Pines and others (1981) assert positive working conditions are effective antidotes to excessive stress. They stated stresses may be reduced in the workplace by eliminating factors, such as noise levels, pollution, extreme temperatures, amd uncomfortable work stations. Private, quiet, and tasteful work environments are positive indicators to the workers that they matter and are important. Although not mentioned in reviewed literature, one very important way to give employees a feeling of importance is to provide spacious, clean and bright restrooms. An organization which attends to providing facilities, such as a nice clean kitchen - dining area, exercising area, and lounges has made great strides in

making their employees more comfortable and less stressed. Providing an environment which is conducive to maximum productivity, while attending to the needs of the worker is an important buffer to burnout.

expectations and goals

Organizations may avoid burnout in its workers by providing clear statements of values and expectations (Walsh, 1987). Expectations must be reasonable (Dalzell, 1988) If realistic, expectations may provide a "pigmalion effect" for the workers and increase productivity. Organizations may remove the "red tape," and provide uncomplicated, clear expectations and procedures for their workers (Pines et al., 1981). Setting reasonable goals for employees and helping employees reach those goals helps control stress (Brief, 1980; Dalzell, 1988). At the same time, organizations may be flexible to accommodate the particular situational needs of the individual and recognizing the differences among the workers. Companies can help prevent burnout by not requiring employees to strictly conform to company standards (Thorne, 1988). Dalzell (1988) suggested being fair with employees. When an organization defines priorities it may help reduce work overload and avoid burnout. Organizations can avoid burnout by not giving an impossible task with unrealistic time constraints (Pines et al., 1981). When the worker

understands one's role, the expectations and goals of the organization, and knows one can meet those expectations and goals, and has a nice environment in which to perform one's job, burnout is a remote possibility.

training and advancement

Training is a powerful burnout buffer (Emde, 1987). Paine (1982) said organizations could help strengthen their individuals by sponsoring workshops on stress management, as well as equipping them to do a good job. Taler (1984) suggests developing programs to deal with stress. Training should include the hows and whats of stress, what are the danger signs, and what are successful coping strategies (Campbell et al., 1988; Center for Public Sector Labor Relations, 1984; Pines et al., 1981). Sarros (1988) added that teaching time management skills for workers may be an effective mean to avoid burnout. Today, fortunately, many big companies offer some kind of training to avoid burnout - from meditation to trampoline therapy (Dumaine, 1988).

Voluck and Abramson (1987) suggested as a burnout preventative, organizations should train supervisors in counseling, interpersonal skills, evaluation, motivation, disciplining, and firing employees. Pines and others (1981) suggests organizations should train people how to provide social supports for other workers.

It is as important to keep the training relevant and interesting for both workers and supervisors. We all know, from our many years in the classroom, the difference an interesting teacher makes for the teaching-learning act. For the trainers, Mase (1989) suggests varying training location and environments. Instructors should use humor in the presentations, and change the course content a little bit each time. Variety in training keeps the interest/learning curve higher.

Institutions should provide workers with a clear description of advancement opportunities. Promotions should make sense to the workers and be based on performance and not popularity or prejudice. Organizations which offer advancement for workers in a fair, understandable fashion are less prone to burnout. When advancement for highly stressful jobs is not available, organizations should employ other mechanisms for rewarding the employee, such as pay increases, benefits, and extra vacation time.

meaning and significance

Pines and others (1981) said organizations should recognize and explain the meaning in individual's jobs to make the individual's feel their work is important. We all know about "the war effort," or doing it "for the Gipper." It is important that workers know that what they are doing is meaningful - to them, their clients, and to the

organization. It is particularly important in professions where the results are abstract, long term, and difficult to discern. People want to feel that they are significant in the place they spent the greatest amount of time. Many people's self-identity is wrapped up in their work performance. Anything, an organization may do to bestow on workers that their contribution is meaningful and significant, will reduce the influence of burnout.

stress levels

It is recognized that stress is normal in life and in the workplace. However, it is in the best interest for organizations to keep stress at a level which promotes maximum production and excites workers, rather than wears them out. Organizations should limit the time involved in stressful activities: otherwise, fatigue and boredom are possible (Pines et al., 1981). Rigid constraints on how one is to do one's job create high levels of stress. A good antidote to high stress and inflexibility is humor (Pines et al., 1981; Carlson, 1989). It is important to have a "light moment" during very stressful periods. One need only review the motion picture, or television series, titled "M.A.S.H." to realize the value of humor in combatting stress. Humor, often on the verge of being ridiculous, was the saving grace for doctors, nurses, and their staffs, under the most stressful condition imaginable. It could be said that

sometimes insane humor puts sanity back into an insane situation. Shared humor is an excellent burnout buffer.

Voluck and Abramson (1987) suggested organizations may help reduce stress levels by first insuring employees fit the job requirement, and then maintaining employee wellness and assistance programs. McCullough (1987) said organizations should give employees an organized way to show frustrations and concerns. Giving employees a constructive way to blow off steam is a very effective buffer. There has been less burnout found in organizations which allow staff to express feelings (Pines et al., 1981). Companies, which provide athletic teams for their employees have long known the benefits of fellowship toward commitment, loyalty, communication, and stress reduction. Dalzell (1988) suggested the granting of quiet time to employees, and allow them to get involved in a different facet of the organization. Walsh (1987), thought organizations should demand employees in high stress jobs use their vacation days.

recognition and feedback.

Supervisors who support employees and treat them as colleagues seem to break the functional link between stress and burnout (Dworkin, 1985). Workers who feel they are recognized and provided fair, timely feedback on their performance experience less stress from worry over their

competency. Former New York City Mayor Koch, holder of what was regarded as the second hardest job in American, was famous for always asking "How am I doing?" Of course, he had thousands of people who were eager to tell him.

Brief (1980) reported stress could be avoided by developing a viable performance appraisal system. Regular feedback on performance helps keep employee expectations realistic (McCullough, 1987). Bachmeyer (1988) suggested organizations should evaluate performance not personalities; should use a formal, understandable procedure; and provide feedback in a regular and timely fashion to the worker. He continued by suggesting organizations should communicate staff performance on an informal, ongoing basis. He suggested that one must give credit and criticism, being generous with praise and recognition when deserved and criticizing fairly with respect.

Pines and others (1981) suggested the improvement of communication patterns in an organizations - from top to bottom, from bottom to top, and among peers - not only reduces stress from the feeling of being left out, but improves productivity and a feeling of ownership. Walsh (1987) suggested organizations should provide a place and a bulletin board for staff to gather and share information. Dalzell (1988) encouraged superior initiating conversations with their staff and communicating regularly. He continued

by suggesting organizations should keep an "open door" policy with employees, motivate employees to work hard by setting the example, and not being afraid to learn from employees and letting employees know it. He finished by reminding supervisors to never be negative. Good public relations are as important inside an organization as they are to the general public. Human relations and positive feedback helps avoid burnout among workers (Sarros, 1988).

A novel item which has been used successfully in helping workers recognize and cope with stress is a color "stress card" (Solomon, 1989). The plastic credit card has a green colored square to which an individual presses one's thumb. If the square turns black, one knows he or she is stressed out and should stop and relax. If the square turns red, the individual is warned to slow down. If it remains green or turns blue, the individual may proceed "full steam ahead." The card may not be clinically accurate, but it does give the individual a quick evaluation device. Plus, the free card makes the individual feel good about an organization which expresses concern over one's well-being.

support and rewards

Rewards and support are buffers against burnout (Pines et al., 1981). Therefore, supervisors should increase their support of their employees, and should establish social support systems at work (Constable & Russell, 1986; Farber,

1983). Social support systems involve a network of peers, family, and friends who validate the self worth of an individual which is usually lacking at work (Farber, 1983). Clouse and Whitaker (1981) proposed that collegial support maintains commitment and enthusiasm. Underwood (1986) found institutionalized sources of support play a greater role in minimizing job stress and burnout than informal social support. If workers feel they are cared for and supported they can deal with higher than normal stress (Pines et al., 1981). They continued by stating people with strong social systems are well-protected from burnout.

Pines and others (1981) suggested organizations may make awards, salary increases, and promotions as part of their policies for good performance. Creating a formalized reward system will help avoid stress burnout (Brief, 1980). Trunch (1980) suggested providing incentives for meritorious performance. However, organizations should never reward the completion of a dirty, thankless job with more dirty, thankless work (Pines et al., 1981). Pines and others (1981) found that if the rewards are great enough, people will overide high levels of stress.

The Center for Public Sector Labor Relations (1984) suggested the creation of self-help groups by organizations. Equally important, organizations need to be able to ease people in and out of the work setting. Support in either

process is critical to prevent further loss in the individual and the spreading of negative stress to others in the organization. Paine (1982) asserted individuals should not be thrown out of the boat without knowledge of how to swim in the currents.

escape mechanisms

"Time outs" are critical for individuals in situations of great emotional strain (Pines et al., 1981). Pines and others (1981) suggested that "time outs" may be something in addition to a coffee breaks. They may be a change to a less stressful assignment or allowing someone else take over the tough job for while. Breaks may include giving the staff a variety of tasks, rather than the same job day in and day out. Out of respect for the importance and commitment of a worker, organizations should allow reasonable voluntary time outs by the worker (Pines et al., 1981). Pines and others continued that if the severity of a task is great, the worker's time of involvement should be reduced.

Sabbaticals are good buffers to burnout (Center for Public Sector Labor Relations, 1984; Schellhardt, 1989; Squires, 1988). Sabbaticals are especially beneficial for individuals who have been in the same position for several years and advancement is unlikely. Sabbaticals are rewards for service which will return a fresh recommitted employee to the organization.

participation and autonomy

Organizations may increase a sense of control by decentralizing authority and involving people at all levels in decision making (Pines et al, 1981). One feature which may have propelled Japanese production to the forefront of today's economy is participatory management. "Quality circles" have workers representative from each stage of production and management sitting together with equal voice to make decisions. Participatory management is frequently found in computer and "Silicon Valley" companies. Although the idea of participatory management originated in America with W. E. Deming, our industries have been slow to adopt the process.

Frymier (1987) suggested superiors should increase the decision making powers of their workers. They should give staff a sense of empowerment by letting them to participate in setting organization goals (Pines et al., 1981). Trunch (1980) suggested allowing workers to decide what they should do and help supervise each others performance . Emphasis on teamwork and shared responsibility evenly distributes stress among the participants. Allowing workers to participate in decision making leads to a feeling of autonomy and control with an increase in individual performance and morale (Rayner, & Prath, 1977).

closing.

What can the leadership in organizations do? They can provide positive feedback and facilitate relationships between all levels of the organization. They can listen and communicate effectively. Leaders can eliminate unnecessary steps and "red tape," and reduce or vary the workload. They can fit the person to the job properly, and train individuals how to be productive and cope with stress. They can establish meaningful and significant roles through realistic, clearly stated expectations.

Adding items to my list of suggestions, Dalzell (1988) offers the following suggestions to organization leaders. Leaders can be understanding of employee problems and value their input. They can pay a good wage. Leaders can exhibit concern for their workers. They should never yell at employees. Finally, leaders should demonstrate zeal in everything they do.

Paine (1982) stateed organizations in this country need to discover the importance of vision management: where shared visions and goals permeate the workplace; where the uniqueness and strengths of each person becomes an asset of the organization; and where an environment emphasizes one's assets and addresses one's weaknesses. Organizations must recognize that their staff today will probably be their staff in one year or even five years from now (Paine, 1982). How well that staff is equipped to prevent stress, and

continue to maintain a feeling of commitment, loyalty, and worth, will determine the productive well-being of the organization in the future. As burnout becomes a pervasive phenomenon preventing workers from quality production, organizations will fund interventions.

Organizations should try their best to instill in each employee a sense of "joy" in what he or she is doing. They should give employees something to look forward to, and not to dread (Paine, 1982). Leaders should spend some time dreaming with their employees, and get them really excited about what they are doing (Dalzell, 1988).

Societal

One may view burnout as a societal dysfunction (Paine, 1982). Some interventions and preventive measures must be the responsibility of our society. Although the interventions may be stressful to the status quo, in the long run the costs of these interventions will be much less costly than the effects of burnout (Paine, 1982). There are cultures like Japan where intiative is rewarded, and an individual is not discouraged from trying. Although expectations and workloads may be high, burnout does not appear as frequently as it does in our culture. An integrated employee-management relationship seems to provide an environment which retards the burnout process. It is the responsibility of our society to carefully look at the

burnout problem and how it is effecting our gross national product, especially our human resource capital. Upon learning the high cost of burnout, government must provide financial and other support for medical, psychological, and sociological research of the causes, effects, and management of work stress (Greenwood & Greenwood, 1979). Greenwood and Greenwood also felt government should provide a data base, just as it does for education or agriculture, on the incidence of burnout and the effect of coping strategies. Finally, they stated government should provide incentives to organizations which consistently illustrate the reduction of stress among its workers. Perhaps, government should assess stiff penalties to organizations which have excessive burnout and rob our human resource capital. Citizens should call upon our law makers and enforcers to adapt effective policies for the reduction of distress and the development of eustress in the workplace (Greenwood & Greenwood, 1979).

Summary

In the care, treatment, and prevention of burnout the reoccurring theme is "control and balance" between expectation and performance. Burnout is treatable and preventable. However, changes and interventions must occur on all levels - individual, organizational and societal. There are as many strategies as obstacles and causes for burnout. Stress and burnout must continue as a focus for

researchers and practitioners. The survival of the human race, as we would like it to be, depends on the successful management of stress and burnout.

Research

Since the term "burnout" was coined by Freudenberger in 1974, the phenomenon has been embraced by researchers and the general public (Silverman, 1988). Although most burnout research has occurred within the last two decades, thousands of projects and articles have been produced on the subject.

Howevever, definitions of burnout continue to be wide in variety. There is no consensus on a simple generic description of burnout because it is encountered in many different fields of inquiry, each interpreting the phenomenon from its own perspective. Most research has been descriptive and qualitative with very little experimental data being produced. The primary focus has been to identify stressors which contribute to burnout (Robertson, 1988), and very little focus on the degree of interrelations or interactions. Although most of the descriptions of burnout have been in the human services, research has begun to identify and describe burnout in other areas of the human endeavor.

Major Methodologies and Instruments

Freudenberger's (1975) original research was primarily qualitative and naturalistic. He noted a common set of expressions among clients he counseled and developed his theories from those observations. The reinforcement of the theories came from further observations through his clinical practice.

Christina Maslach was a pioneer methodologist in burnout (Paine, 1982) and produced the most widely used instrument and scale. The Maslach Burnout Inventory ,"MBI," which Maslach developed with Susan Jackson (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), is a standardized scale measure of three aspects of the burnout syndrome: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and [reduced] personal accomplishment. The questionaire survey has be found to be reliable and valid by many studies (Ivanicki and Schwab, 1981; Koeske and Koeske, 1989; Pelsma, 1989).

Hackman and Oldham (1975) produced the Job Diagnostic Survey, a scaled measure. The survey related job design variables to worker motivation and productivity. The instrument reflected the theoretical framework of the cybernetic model proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1975). The instrument has been used several times in conjunction with the MBI, and has been invaluable in the study of burnout variables (Farber, 1983).

R. Wilburn Clouse and Katherine Whitaker developed the Career Attitude Inventory (Clouse and Whitaker, 1981), "CAI" which Clouse improved to become the Burnout Assessment Inventory, "BAI," of stress and career burnout (Clouse, 1982a). The instrument has an 82 item questionaire with a likert scale response. It also has a 18 item questionaire on demographic information. He employed an inventory approach to measure three stages, or subscales which seem to be universal in burnout. The subscales are enthusiasm, frustration, and alienation. Using a subscale scoring of 0 to 100, low to high, he developed a burnout profile. The profile ranges from the "model employee" to being "burned out". Immediate stages include the "prime candidate, complacent, confused, and scorched." The "CAI" and "BAI," based on item analysis and factor analysis, appears to be reliable and valid. Clouse's instruments have been widely employed to study burnout (Robertson, 1988; Pierce, 1982; Whitaker, 1981; Youree, 1984; Singer, 1984; Allen, 1982; and Pierce, 1982).

Levin (1980) presented an evaluative instrument for measuring burnout among individuals and environments using a nominal scale (Allen, 1982). Pines and others (1981) created the Tedium Test which consisted of a questionaire survey to diagnose how one feels about work and about life. Using a likert-like scale, one could perform a

self-diagnosis to determine their level of tedium (Pines et al., 1981).

Robert Golembiewski (Golembiewski and Munzenrider, 1988), a major contributor in organizational development, "OD," and Munzenrider took the MBI, and developed the Phases of Burnout Model as a measuring device. Golembiewski proposed burnout could occur at varying phases. He took the three MBI subcales and defined the phases of burnout in eight possible combinations of low or high scores of the subscales. Golembiewski and Rountree (1986) administered the Maslach Burnout Inventory to 2123 employees of a corporate chain's retirement communities and found validation for Golembiewski's phases model, and that workplace characteristics varied with the phases of burnout. However, Golembiewski's phase model been seriously questioned (Burke, 1989; Gloembiewski, 1989; Leiter 1989).

Freudenberger, Maslach and Jackson, and Clouse and Whitaker have provided the major methodologies and instruments in burnout. Most other current instruments are very similar to the landmark instruments mentioned above. Several other instruments which have been developed will be mentioned in the current studies section of this paper.

Obstacles to burnout research exist. Burnout is still considered pop psychology by many researchers, but many others are joining the search. In higher education, the

largest body of researchers, resistance is strong (Paine, 1982). They are afraid burnout researchers might point fingers of blame at faculty and educational institutions, so they prevent researchers from assessing curricular interventions which would add needed information to professional training. It is argued that burnout research has been primarily from a psychological view and could be made stronger by including more concepts from sociology (Handy, 1988). Regardless, more burnout research is needed particularly beyond exploratory. Also, the careful assessment of the burnout constructs require long term, carefully designed study (Paine, 1982).

Studies

In the earlier days of research, the pioneer investigators looked primarily to the helping professions. Freudenberger (1977) studied day care workers, Maslach and Jackson (1979) studied police persons, Mitchell (1977) looked at consultants, Vash (1980) investigated school administrators, Gehrman (1981) and Levin (1981) looked at dentistry, and Clouse and Whitaker (1981) first looked at teachers. Although many researchers shied away from burnout as a fad, many others have become very interested in the phenomenon. Today, burnout is generally recognized as a unique syndrome worthy of investigation.

The body of research related to stress and burnout grows daily. So much literature is now available that one person could not possibly read all that is in print. Even if one were current, new information is being published faster than it can be reviewed. Most research has occurred in the human services, such as teaching, nursing, and social services. However, in the last decade other areas of work and human experience have been studied. The following descriptions are intended to reflect what is currently known about the characteristics and extent of burnout in our society - who was studied by whom, what instruments were used, and what were the findings?

General

T. F. Riggar (1985) produced an annotated bibliography which examined, in considerable detail, the most relevant literature on burnout up to 1983. In addition to summaries of the best publications culled from thousands of pieces investigated, the volume has a comprehensive compendium which identifies authors/researchers with each major area of burnout: signs and symptoms, causes and sources, and coping strategies.

Education

Wangberg (1984) used a survey questionaire to study 255 elementary school teachers. It was discovered forty percent

would not choose education as a profession if they could start over. Their concerns were poor working conditions, paperwork, declining status of teachers, and lack of job alternatives. The study led to the development of the Teacher Stress Scale, "TSS," which measures nine factors of teacher stress and job dissatisfaction. Hanchey and Brown (1989) used three questionaires to study 136 kindergarten through eighth grade teachers for multidimensional factors of burnout. The relationship of the factors and burnout were discussed.

Whitaker (1981) used the CAI to survey teachers. She found low levels of burnout and thought the concern over burnout might have been overestimated. Raquepan and deHaas (1984) used the MBI with 101 High school teachers. They found no relationship between burnout and demographics, but attitudes to leave were related to all three subscales. The more time one had spent in a job, the less likely they would leave. They also found burnout causes were: lack of administrative support, lack of parent and community support, workload, low student motivation, and discipline problems. Farber (1984) used the Teacher Attitude Survey, and a modification of the MBI, to study 265 suburban teachers, 34-44 years old. He found 20-25% vulnerable to burnout, 10-15% already burned out. Stressors found were excessive paperwork, unsuccessful administrative meetings, and lack of advancement. He found the same results in his

earlier (Farber 1982) study of 398 teachers in New York and New Jersey. DiGeronimo (1985) argued boredom was a major factor in burnout among teachers.

Barnett (1985) did a case study of 210 teachers who had resigned during the 1984-84 academic year from a southeastern metropolitan school system. The main reason for resigning was job dissatisfaction (21%). They cited poor administration, poor discipline, little control, large classes, uncooperative parents, stressful atmosphere, and mediocrity as the sources of their frustrations.

Sarros (1986) studied teachers in Canada. Teachers were found to have feeling of lack of personal accomplishment from poor feedback, interactions with students, demoralized self-concept, poor advancement opportunities, and negative public and parent attitudes. Calabrese (1986) studied public school teachers. He found a high degree of isolation from peers, feeling of no control, and lack of involvement in decision making. Russell, Altmaier, and Van Velzen (1987) mailed a survey to teachers in Iowa. They found age, sex, and grade level of teaching, number of stressful events, and social support were predictors of burnout. The less vulnerable teachers had supportive supervisors and positive feedback.

Silverman (1988) examined twenty-nine male and fifty-five female teachers with the MBI. He found teachers

take credit for good events but felt lack of control over the events. They did not take credit for failures. Females were significantly more burned out, and young teachers felt burnout more frequently. Friesen and others (1988) used qualitative and quantitative methods to survey 1211 teachers in western Canada. They found factors other than work stress may lead to burnout. These factors may include status dissatisfaction and depersonalization. Holmes and others (1988) surveyed 580 classroom teachers in elementary, junior, and senior high schools. He found a high percentage of job dissatisfaction. Factors influencing resignation decisions were: salary, non-instructional duties, insufficient materials and facilities, lack of rewards and little autonomy, administration problems, lack of status and respect, discipline problems, low morale, and lack of support from parents and the community. Brissie and others (1988) studied teachers to find environmental factors, such as organizational rigidity and support from principal and pears strongly related to burnout.

Burke (1989), using the Cherniss model, studied 833 teachers. He found work setting characteristics in concert with personal variables contribute to stress. Gold (1989), through a literature review, proposed induction programs to reduce stress and burnout. She suggested providing seminars to retain beginning teachers. Gold and Bachelor (1988)

found signs of burnout among practice teachers during their training period.

Special Education

Olson and Matuskey (1982) investigated 173 learning disability teachers who self reported being stressed. Stress related factors included excessive paperwork, inadequate salary, poor discipline, inadequate planning time, student attitude, and high student load. Demographics had little relationship to burnout. Educational preparation was related to burnout. Pierce (1982) used the CAI to survey special education teachers and found the majority of respondents were in the burnout process. Identified stressors were excessive paperwork, lack of communications, lack of administrative support, and felt powerlessness. Cyr (1988) used the MBI to study special education teachers and found teachers and administrators do not agree on the same variables as stress reducers. Robertson (1988) used the BAI and studied special education teachers of high school behavior-disordered children. She found the teachers exhibited moderately high levels exhaustion, frustration, and anxiety. More than a third of the respondents were in the burnout process. Frustration was more related to professional and personal issues organizational issues. No significant differences were found relating to age, level of education, experience, or years in current position. More

medical problems were found in burnout victims. She found lack of feedback, poor supervision, demanding role perceptions, inadequate support systems, interpersonal conflicts, feelings of powerlessness, lack of short term criteria for success to burnout. The strongest indicator of burnout was a feeling of lack of control.

Beasley and others (1983) used the MBI, the Stress Profile for Teachers, and a demographic and job-related questionaire to study 606 regular and special education teachers in Utah. No difference in burnout was found between regular and special education teachers. Scoring was in the moderate range of burnout, less than 3% were high in burnout. Demographic and job related variables did not show relationship to burnout. Cherniss (1988) studied the relationship between supervisory behavior and staff burnout in schools for the severely retarded. Lower burnout was found among those who spent more time planning and coordinating activities than those who spent more time observing classroom activity. Also, those who spent more time with superiors talking about work related problems than administrative issues showed less burnout.

Shea (1990) used the MBI to study 215 female learning disabilities teachers. Burnout related factors were high demands, and no support from parents and administrators.

Teachers who shared assessment duties with other professionals showed less exhaustion.

Coaches

Sisley (1987) reported teachers and coaches are particularly susceptible to burnout due to role conflict, ambiguity, and overload. Dale and Weinberg (1989) used the MBI, the Leader Behavior Description Questionaire, the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, and a demographic data sheet to study 232 male and 69 female high school and college coaches. They found subjects who exhibited a consideration style of leadership behavior scored higher in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Men scored significantly higher than females in depersonalization.

Administrators

Wright and Thomas (1982) studied 171 school psychologists and found tension and the propensity to leave the profession was related to the need for role clarity. Personal characteristics and organizational size were not factors.

Clark and Smith (1987), using the MBI, studied 122 assistant directors and district supervisors of the cooperative extension service in north central Ohio. One fifth of the respondents showed high levels of burnout. Demographics had little relationship to burnout. The

majority of the respondents had low levels of stress, although assistant directors had the most work overload. The majority of the administrators were satisfied with their jobs.

Sarros and Friesen (1987) studied 128 school based administrators in a large Canadian suburban school district. Using the MBI and a demographic questionaire, he found major burnout factors included work load, interpersonal relationships, and lack of positive feedback. Predictors of burnout were overall work stress, status and recognition, and dissatisfaction with interpersonal relationships. Thirty-four percent had higher than normal levels of personal accomplishment burnout.

Principals and Superintendents

Croft (1983) received 3389 completed questionaires from teachers in the south west. He found there was little support for principal's attitude in guiding teacher behavior. Role alienation plays a major role because principals feel little control. Conaway and Coleman (1984) in an article, stated principals may experience stress from interpersonal clashes and conflicts, excessive administrative responsibilities, time constraints, and conflicting role expectations.

Friesen (1986) used the MBI and three open-ended questionaire items to investigate burnout among 190 principals and vice principals. He found emotional exhaustion burnout could be predicted by overall job stress, status and recognition, work load, and lack of job challenge. Depersonalization burnout could be predicted by status, and lack of job challenge. Personal accomplishment burnout could be predicted by overall job stress and satisfaction with status and recognition. Whitesell (1987) used the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionaire to study 452 school superintendents in Texas. Lowest satisfaction was associate with no chance for advancement, praise not received, low pay in relationship to workload, and the skills of the school board.

Combination of pre-collegiate respondents

Sarros (1986) studied 128 administrators and 635 teachers in western Canada urban schools using the MBI. Feelings of overextension and exhaustion were related to insufficient time, workload, and central office expectations. Negative attitudes were associated with interpersonal relations, negative public opinion, and poor feedback. Feelings of lack of accomplishment were related to poor feedback, student relations, low morale, poor advancement opportunities, and negative parental and public attitudes.

Greenglass and Burke (1988), using the MBI, investigated 229 female and 327 male teachers and administrators. They found females had significantly more depression and headaches than males. Burnout among females was caused by role conflict, marital dissatisfaction, work sources of stress, and lack of social support. In males, the causes were stress, lack of competence, and problems with students.

Byrne (1989) studied 98 elementary, 163 intermediate, 162 secondary, and 218 college teachers in Ottawa. He found by using multigroup comparisons, the test instrument, MBI, had very sound psychometric properties with teachers up through secondary level, less sound among college teachers.

Community College

In 1988, The Office of Educational Research and Improvement reported on a variety of constructs and measures regarding job satisfaction among community college faculty. Concerns were lack of preparation time, lack of recognition for professional growth, and lack of support for instruction. Faculty stagnation was a major concern. Recommendations included encouraging variety in tasks, restructuring sabbaticals to facilitate retraining, and using salaries and bonuses to recognize teaching excellence in tangible ways.

Kelly (1988), using research at Humber College, Ontario, reported on problems in community colleges of the United States and Canada. Burnout was a listed problem. Leadership and organizational climate are important factors of burnout. Recommendations included improving teacher effectiveness through direction by middle management, supporting professional growth, instilling a sense of purpose, facilitating cooperation across all levels and areas of the college, and providing a positive climate.

University

Seldin (1987), through a literature review of the college professor, stated the professor deals with high levels of stress. The sources of such stress comes from lack of participation in decision making, work overload, low pay, poor working conditions, inadequate recognition, unrealized career expectations, and unsatisfactory interactions. McMillan (1987) reported that tension and anxiety makes the academic life difficult. Pressures come from competition, low pay, poor working conditions, tight resources, lessened mobility, growth in part-time positions, and high self-expectations. Anderson and Cole (1988) echoed the claim that academic burnout results from high levels of stress. Machell (1989) examined professorial melancholy characterized by the negation of motivation, attitude and self-esteem. He also reviewed the literature

on alcohol and drug use among faulty. Gappa (1987) found part-time faculty stressed because institutional policies and practices are designed to suit the college and full-time personnel.

Seltzer and Numerof (1988) investigated 256 MBA students using the Gillespie-Numerof Burnout Inventory and The Leader Behavior Description Questionaire to determine the burnout effect of the supervisor/subordinate relationship. Low autonomy, low consideration, may be contributors to burnout. Simply, measuring supervisor support may not be able to determine the relationship between burnout and leader behavior. Neumann, Neumann, and Reichel (1990) in their study found that students experienced burnout in relationship to the quality of their learning experience.

Library

Burnout was found among librarians (Bunge, 1989; Patterson and Howell, 1990) and library administrators (Smith, Bybee, and Raish, 1988). Taler (1984) mailed questionaires to 90 library directors in New York State. Out of the 40 replies, he found 65% perceived burnout in their staff and that stress and frustration were the most notable signs of burnout. He concluded burnout definitely existed among library professional staff. Nelson (1987) and Sloane (1988) reported burnout among law librarians.

Vocation supervisors

Barrick (1989) investigated 185 Ohio vocational supervisors with the MBI and the Brayfield-Rothe Job Satisfaction Index. The majority of supervisors were experiencing high levels of burnout, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization.

Nursing

Jones (1981) gave an anonymous survey to 31 nurses. The Staff Burnout Scale and the Personnel Selection Inventory were administered to measure burnout levels and attitudes, values, and perceptions toward theft. He found those who did not strictly adhere to work-break schedules extended their breaks without permission by an average of twenty-five minutes. The same individuals scored higher on dishonesty, and had significantly higher burnout ratings. Lowman (1984) studied intensive care nurses and found burnout was related to age, mental status, salary, education, and nursing experience.

Cronin-Stubbs and Brophy (1985) investigated female nurses. They administered the Norbeck Social Support Questionaire, The Life Experience Survey, a nursing stress scale, and a staff burnout scale to 666 psychiatric nurses, 65 operating room nurses, 74 intensive care nurses, and 91 medical specialty nurses. They found the number of hours at

work negatively related to burnout. Calming prescription drugs taken were related positively to burnout. Social support systems and work settings were related positively to burnout. They suggested validation is needed during stressful times at work.

Constable and Russell (1986) used the MBI to investigate 310 military nurses. They found determinants of burnout were low job enhancement; work pressure; task orientation; the lack of superior support, autonomy, clarity, innovation, and physical comfort; and the interaction of support and job enhancement. In college nursing programs, Dick (1986) discovered faculty identified collegial support, positive feedback from dean or supervisors, and participatory management style as more important buffers against burnout than workload. Lipson and Koehler (1986) studied the activity in a psychiatric emergency room. They found humor was the mainstay and the major coping mechanism, The subculture of the emergency room reflected high fellowship, mutual respect, and a relatively democratic role structure. Consultation was an ongoing process with the sharing of control - or the lack of it.

Tetrick and LaRocco (1987) studied 206 physicians, dentists, and nurses in a large naval hospital. The study tested a model which proposed if one could understand, predict, and control events in the work environment, the

potential adverse effects associated with certain work conditions could be reduced. They found understanding, prediction, and control had direct relationships with stress. None of the variables had a significant direct relationship with psychological well-being.

Leiter and Maslach (1988) used the MBI to study 52 nurses in private hospitals. Results indicated emotional exhaustion leads to greater depersonalization which, in turn, leads to diminished personal accomplishment. Patterns of contacts with peers and superiors relate to all three areas of burnout. High burnout was related to diminished organizational commitment, and related to the interpersonal environment of the organization. Hare, Pratt, and Andrews (1988) investigated six dimensions of burnout among 312 nurses in acute and long term care facilities. The most powerful predictors of burnout were work relationships, tension-releasing, and instrumental problem-focused coping. They found burnout to be both a personal and organizational problem. Leiter (1988a) investigated 906 unionized nurses in Nova Scotia using a questionaire which measured organizational commitment, aspects of the work setting, social support, and burnout. He found social and non-social stressors and supports were independently associated to workers perception of the workplace.

Patenau-Jones (1988) investigated burnout in 379 nurses by using the MBI, then interviewed 41 of the subjects by telephone. ICU nurses showed significantly higher burnout than other nurses, and hospital support systems did not predict the level of burnout. Fifty-three precent of those interviewed by telephone wanted the support group to be held outside of the hospital.

Harris (1989) compared stress in intensive care nurses to non-ICU nurses by reviewing twenty studies. She discovered little difference between the two groups regarding burnout. Nurses who expressed the symptoms of burnout were generally younger, less experienced, less educated, less able to anticipate work problems, and had feelings of alienation and powerlessness, as well as, physical complaints. Nurses' burnout and quitting was addressed by Firth and Britton (1989) and The Washington Post ("Why nurses quit," 1988).

Dentistry

Allen (1982) used the CAI to survey dental hygienists in Tennessee and found burnout in the sample. Relationships were found between burnout and years of experience, salary, client support and isolation, cooperation and appreciation, and organizational structure, such as time problems and workload of the office. Levin

(1980) studied brunout among dentists and dental higientists.

Hospice

Schneider (1987) discussed the hospice professional and strategies for managing stress. Items discussed were excessive self involvement, or self-abatement, flexibility, and relationships with the professional self. Other considerations included working conditions, mature of tasks, and changes in relationships. In a literature review, Ray, Nichols, Michael, and Perritt, (1987) identified burnout stressors in hospice workers. The stressors included emotional involvement, lack of time to grieve, transference with patients, patient/family conflicts, and the reality of death.

Mental Health

Maslach and Pines (1978) investigated 76 staff members in San Francisco mental health facilities. Their questionaire results identified burnout factors. The longer one worked in the field the less they liked working with patients. The less successful, the more negative their attitude to mental illness. Maslach and Pines recommended reducing the work stress and allowing professionals temporary withdrawal.

Savicki and Cooley (1987) used the MBI and the Work Environment Scale to investigate 94 mental health professionals, aged 19 to 57 years. They found high levels of burnout associated with strict work policies and restricted worker freedom, no flexibility, and deemphasized planning and efficiency. Low levels of burnout were found in environments which had workers committed to their work, worker cooperation and communication were encouraged, and supervisors were supportive.

Leiter (1988b), using the MBI, evaluated mental health workers. The study showed high burnout for workers who communicated extensively about work but had few informal, supportive relations with co-workers. A need existed for peer supervision and supportive, work-oriented communication. Miller, Stiff, and Ellis (1988) used the MBI to investigate 417 psychiatric hospital employees. They concluded participation in decision making, and social support, impact workplace stress and burnout. Bermudez (1988) studied burnout among mental health professionals in two different cultures: hispanic and non-hispanic. He used the MBI and the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionaire. He found hispanics had significantly lower burnout than non-hispanics

Psychotherapists and Psychologists

Farber (1982) conducted semi-structured interviews of 60 psychotherapists. He found burnout factors included work overload, high responsibility, isolation, the slow pace of work, and non-reciprocated attentiveness and giving.

Vincent (1989) studied 40 therapists: twenty classified as "burned out" and twenty "not burned out." The MBI, the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, the Holmes/Rahe Stress Test, and a screening questionaire were used. The burned out group had significantly higher work related stress and low job satisfaction scores.

Von Baeyer (1988) examined the progress of ten psychological trainees. At the beginning of the study he used the California Personality Inventory, the Adjectives Check List, and the Background Information Questionaire. At monthly intervals, he used the MBI, the State Trait Anxiety Inventory, the Beck Depression Inventory, and Firo-B COPE. He found all trainees had elevated scores on burnout measures and half of the subjects had elevated scores on anxiety and depression. Half of the group's burnout scores increased for six months, the other half had increases for three months, then decreases. Personality and demographics were significantly related to burnout, but not to depression and anxiety. Burnout scores did decrease as trainees learned coping mechanisms to deal with the stresses of a crisis clinic setting.

Other Helping Professions

Wade, Cooley, and Savicki (1986) used a battery of tests, including the MBI, to follow-up on a one year longitude study of 46 helping professionals, aged 22-57 years. Those in the higher burnout category were found to feel less social support from peers and superiors, and feel the work setting more controlling. The higher burnout group also took greater personal responsibility for the outcome of their clients.

Social Workers

Jayarantne, Himled, and Chess (1988) used a ten-page questionaire on burnout and social support to study 480 social workers. They found support systems within an organization benefit those workers who used them, although the use may not result in positive outcomes. Respondents were more likely to use the support systems if they perceived a supportive work environment

Meyerson (1989) used a range of qualitative methods, including a one-year observation, structured and unstructured interviews, and a questionaire, to investigate 61 social workers in five hospitals. He found cultural forces relate to the interpretation of ambiguity and burnout. An organization may contain different cultures

which constrain or liberate how one may respond the work setting.

Justice, Gold, and Klein (1981) used a battery of tests to investigate 134 female and 54 male counselors and social workers. They found negative life events may promote burnout, whereas positive events may act as buffers. Promoting positive events reduces the likelihood of burnout.

Koeske and Koeske (1989) evaluated the construct validity of the MBI through eight years of study on 378 social workers. The findings supported the validity of the sub scales, but they suggested a reconceptualization of the MBI to regard exhaustion as an element of burnout and treat accomplishment and depersonalization as related to, but not elements, of burnout.

Developmentally Disabled

Daly-Barnes (1989) investigated 182 client care workers at a residential facility for developmentally disabled people. Using the MBI, the Personal Views Survey, and a demographics questionaire, she found a significant inverse relationship between hardiness and burnout. The three factors of hardiness are commitment, control, and challenge which includes a feeling of involvement, a sense of control, and an openess to changes. Workers who were hardier were married for several years, had more children, were better

educated, and had not worked in the setting as long as others.

Counselors

Eisenstat, Russell, and Felner (1984) administered the MBI and a job-related tensions scale to 168 workers in human services programs in the northeastern United States. They found job-enriching characteristics related to job involvement, satisfaction, and accomplishment, but not to emotional exhaustion. Job stressors were found to be related with higher levels of emotional exhaustion, but not to involvement or accomplishment. Feedback from clients was related to accomplishment and commitment to clients. Supervisor feedback was related to job satisfaction. Involvement with clients was directly related to vulnerability to stress, while involvement with the job was a buffer to stress.

Maslach and Florian (1988) used the MBI and a questionaire about work to survey 38 rehabilitation counselors. Emotional exhaustion, related to work overload and perceived lack of control and dissatisfaction with the job, was noted as the key component of burnout among the counselors. Rimmerman (1989) administered the MBI to 40 beginning rehabilitation workers in Israel. Family support and job satisfaction were negatively related to the three

burnout subscales. No significant relationships were found between type of supervision and burnout.

Rogers and Dodson (1988) used the MBI to investigate burnout among 99 registered occupational therapists, aged 22-67 years. They found significant relationships between age and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and years of work as a therapist and depersonalization and personal accomplishment, and education and emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Other factors included hours of direct contact with patients and years in present position.

Peterson (1989) used the Maslach Human Services Survey, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionaire, and a demographic data sheet to investigate 85 addiction counselors. Results showed addiction counselors experience comparable burnout levels as other social service providers. Burnout factors included role clarity, job satisfaction, and work setting. Cyr (1988) mailed a burnout questionaire to crisis intervention counselors in Alaska to identify the role of burnout and turnover. Results showed burnout was the most frequent factor of turnover.

McCullough and O'Brien (1986) used the MBI to investigate burnout among 98 service providers in a department of youth and community services. Burnout was

found to be related to occupational conditions, rather than the make up of the individual.

Client Care

Fuqua and Couture (1986) administered the MBI and the Nowicki-Strickland Internal-External Control Scale for Adults to 120 daycare workers in 24 different centers. Workers dealing with infants expressed less stress than those who worked with older children. Participation in decision making, education of workers, and experience were related to feelings of emotional exhaustion. Contrary to previous finds, the number of children served, availability of breaks, education of children, and time spent in non-child activities were not related to burnout. Control was a factor for personal accomplishment. Piaget (1988), in an opinion paper, lists the stressors of a day care director. They included being understaffed, overworked, overstressed, underpaid, and under appreciated. However, a large number of daycare directors are doing very well psychologically.

Hildebrand and Seefeldt (1986) investigated 20 childcare teachers. Using the MBI and the Early Childhood Environmental Rating Scale, they found no real relationship between the quality of the day care environment and burnout, nor was there a relationship between turnover and burnout.

Sprecht (1989) mailed questionaire and assessment packets to adult day care workers and 109 responded. Findings included that higher levels of burnout were associated to daily hassles, and adult daycare workers experience lower burnout levels than others in similar helping professions. Environmental factors contributed to burnout.

Thompson (1980) studied 47 parents of group homes for emotionally disturbed adolescents and found significant relationships between burnout and "away time" and support systems of friends, staff, and the organization.

Law Enforcement

Brown (1987) discussed how a probation officer's burnout harmfully impacts an organization. He suggests reducing job stress, eliminating role ambiguity, and excessive workloads; and increasing participation in decision making, flexible work schedules and workloads, opportunities for professional development, and employee recognition. He targets the supervisor as the person most able to effect a positive change.

Digman, Barrera, and West (1986) used the MBI and a battery of scales to investigate burnout among 166 county correctional officers. Stress factors which contribute to burnout included role ambiguity, work load, and direct

contact with inmates. Social support was found to be primarily a preventive measure which indirectly affects burnout. Gerstein, Topp, and Correll (1987) investigated 164 correctional personnel; using the person-environmental fit model. They found burnout was more closely associated to the working environment then the person's variables. Altering social networks and self-expectations would not reduce burnout. However, enhancing contacts with inmates and clarifying work roles would. Drory and Shamir (1988) studied prison guards at four Israeli facilities through questionaires. They found interorganizational conflict and external variables were directly related to job satisfaction and burnout.

Stevenson (1988) used a questionaire packet which included measures of social support, occupational stress, coping strategies, and burnout to study 597 policemen in a metropolitan police department in the southwestern United States. He found white officers experienced higher levels of burnout than black officers. College educated officers had higher levels of burnout than those without a college education. Sergeants and Lieutenants experienced significantly higher levels of burnout than did recruits. No gender relationships were found. Stressors related to higher levels of burnout were social isolation, racial tension, and strains and injuries. Esposito (1989) used the MBI and the General Information Questionaire to explore

stress among 25 policemen and their families which included teenaged children. She found lesser degree of accomplishment related to lesser degree of cohesion in the family. Stress had a direct impact on a family's life and particularly the relationship between the policeman and a teenage child. Smith (1989) used the MBI and the Family Environment Scale among twenty-four married, experienced policemen having an oldest child, aged 10-15 years, and 10 inexperienced, married policemen. The study supported the police family profile of being more cohesive, less expressive, more interdependent, and much more regimented with set rules and procedures to maintain the family system. The profile became more developed as the policeman increased in experience and the child increased in age.

Firefighters

Gaza-MacMullen (1988) studied 100 male firefighters who completed instruments including the Jenkins Activity Survey, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, the Collett-Lester Attitudes toward Death Scale, the Leader Behavior Description Questionaire, the Job Descriptive Index, Perceived Job Stress, The Coping Inventory, Dyadic Adjustment Scale, and The MBI. She found perceived work stress was directly related to burnout. Related stressors included decreased job satisfaction, type "A" personality, and single marital status. Job satisfaction was directly

related to consideration leadership. Leadership was directly related to structure.

Accountants

Senatra (1988) studied 54 male and 37 female public accountants who worked for a member of the big eight accounting firms. The major stressor was found to be role conflict with it being a concern for 64% of the males and 79% of the females. Role conflict could be reduced for males through coordination, for females through sufficient authority to make decisions. Personal stressors were about the same for males and females. Cook and Kelly (1988) reported time-budget pressures were major problems for public accountants causing low job satisfaction, and turnover and resulted in poor data for planning and control. Under-reported chargeable time reported increased from 45% in 1982 up to as high as 70% of the respondents in 1988. Reduced quality of audit reported by accountants rose from 28% in 1983 to 43% in 1988. Piccoli, Emig, and Hitebeitel (1988) stated the primary causes of stress among public accountants are work overload, time pressure, the current economy demands to cut costs, and rigid accounting standards. Women in accounting may experience additional stress from job discrimination. Campbell, Sheridan, and Campbell (1988) reported on a 1985 study which indicated 23% of 221 accountants who responded experienced incredible

stress during tax season. Although coping mechanisms included taking time off, exercise, and time with family, these activities declined significantly during tax season.

Engineers

Etzion (1988) explored burnout and success in the professional and private lives of 51 male and 51 female engineers. Results indicated that burnout was related to the fit between personal attributes and a person's total work-non-work environment. Males were better able to integrate work success with their private lives. Work-non-work successes were compatible for males, but conflicts for females. Engineers needed career consultants and human resource managers to be sensitive to burnout issues.

Ministers

Kelley (1989) used the MBI and the Ministerial Support Questionaire, to survey 200 female pastors and 200 male pastors of the Presbyterian denomination in the United States. From 245 usable questionaires, Kelley found women scored significantly higher than men on the emotional exhaustion subscale. Women had a longer job search time than men. Female pastors experienced less acceptance from church personnel and congregation members. Women felt they received more praise from significant others than men

pastors. Each of these factors were related to burnout. Job satisfaction was a powerful indicator of all types of burnout. Dyment (1989) used the MBI and Welsmann's Dysfunctional Atttitude Survey to survey overseas missionaries. Of 1034 surveys mailed, 424 useable surveys were received from conservative Baptist missionaries in 33 countries. Dyment found unrealistic expectations was a strong factor for burnout. Perfectionism was not a factor. Demographic factors were only weakly related to burnout, and the need for clarity did not relate to burnout.

Law

Jackson, Turner, and Brief (1987) administered the MBI to study 391 public service lawyers. They found emotional exhaustion was strongly associated with role conflict and workload, feelings of personal accomplishment with social support and job level, and depersonalization was associated with role conflict and decision making policies. All of these factors were significantly related to organizational commitment. Marcus (1987) reported why young lawyers would leave the profession, and Perazich (1987) discussed burnout among judges.

Business

Golemblewski, Hilles, and Daly (1987), using the eight phase model of the MBI and 10 work environment scales,

gathered data on 31 members of the human resources staff of a corporation. The surveys were administered five times during a two-year period. An organizational development program was introduced which reduced the level of burnout and improved the characteristics of the group and turnover. Initially, the employees exhibited high levels of burnout which decreased during the time of interventions, and remained reduced for at least four months after the last intervention, although the burnout levels increased after nine months and an organization change. However, the group characteristics and turnover remained the same. It was cautioned that high-stimulus OD interventions might not improve passive employees as it would active participants.

Sutton and Rafaeli (1987) did a field study of 109 clerical workers. They found atmospheric and other employees' intrusions on an individual did not necessarily produce a negative response. The individual was more likely to refer the intrusions more to the work setting than reactions to the work. Employees who perceived themselves to have work overload had fewer reactions to work environmental conditions because they seem to concentrate more on their work and ignore the intrusions. Williams (1988) used the hardiness model to investigate 1476 employees who worked for an insurance and manufacturing company. Several findings resulted. Stressors was directly related to burnout, illness, and absenteeism.

Stress mediated significant relationships with burnout and absenteeism. Life and work conditions had greater impact on burnout than events. Hardiness had significant buffering affects to burnout. Stress did affect hardiness. Hardiness is relatively stable over time. Past hardiness is a good predictor for future hardiness. A person's hardiness determines how one will respond to stressors and the factors of burnout.

Giles (1987) interviewed 12 personnel directors and 18 of their subordinates. She found the directors lacked general awareness of their own stresses and showed little concern for the stresses subordinates encountered, although directors had a clear understanding of stress. She found the causes of stress included role ambiguity, role conflict, work overload, organizational pressures, management of change, and personality. Pines and Aronson (1989), Bellenger and Wilcox (1987), and Administrative Management magazine (1988) discussed the high burnout levels found among managers. Managers Magazine (1989) interviewed insurance managers and determined ways to avoid being overcome by burnout. The suggestions included a high level of planning, selecting highly motivated managers, and remaining enthusiastic about serving customers.

Hanks (1985) administered the MBI and a demographic questionaire to 152 business executives. He found no

significant difference in the levels of stress between large and small companies, nor at different levels of management. Sex and age were significant predictors of burnout. Younger employees experienced less stress. Education level was a significant predictor. Executives with high levels of education perceived high levels of stress, while executives with less education perceived lower levels of stress.

Mintzberg (1973) did one of the earliest studies on chief executives. He described the executives's job as being exceptionally stressing because it is characterized by brevity, variety, and fragmentation. The executive is faced daily with a barrage of numerous and various hassles and encounters. He rarely finishes one task before he must deal with another. Lappa (1989) and Holden (1988) discussed stress among chief executives.

Other Jobs

Several other jobs have been identified as under the throes of burnout. Festa (1987) discussed stressed out bankers, Miller (1989) encouraged real estate agents to develop good exercise and food habits, Falling (1989) wrote about the pending epidemic of burnout among museum directors, Avis (1987) suggested how to avoid job burnout in sales, and Gordon (1988) wrote about the stress and psychological process of a professional athlete at the end of his or her career. Shay (1989) wrote about burnout in

the hardware trade, and Cotton and Browne (1978) suggested organizational development consultants burnout.

Women

Goldman (1989) used the MBI to study burnout in 108 mothers of young children and found they burnout but maintain very low levels of depersonalization. Belle (1990) through a national survey in Redbook magazine studied burnout in 1290 women. She found 27% of the respondents had high levels of burnout. The lack of money was the greatest stressor, and work was second on the list. The Washington Post ("Stressed out women", 1989) reported on stressed out working women. Epstein (1988) studied the workers in battered women shelters.

The unemployed/dislocated

Drevets (1989) discussed the role of counselors of unemployed workers. It was suggested the process known as "job search burnout" exists which begins with enthusiasm, moves to stagnation and frustration, and finally apathy. It was important that counselors help the dislocated person with developing one's true self and overcome the pressures of being out of a job. Counselors must encourage the person to look forward to change, and the new person the client is becoming. Fear and pain of loss may overwhelm the dislocated person. It is necessary to trust change.

Summary

The research of the 1980's primarily validated the findings of earlier investigations. Recent methodologies and instruments are merely refinements, and not replacements, of earlier models. Recent research did, however, show that burnout is a unique and authentic problem which is far more widespread than originally thought. Research has expanded, not simplified, the already complex definition of burnout. The burnout syndrome is relevant to the perspective and characteristics of the researcher's orientation, be it psychology, sociology, or organizational development. Each work setting may have unique characteristics of burnout, but they share common themes with burnout in other settings. When more professions and work roles look at their modern day problems, they may discover the need to study and address burnout. Research has verified that burnout is an insidious problem in our culture's workplaces which extends far beyond the helping professions.

The Cost of Burnout

Burnout has created enormous costs in our society. The effects of work place stress on individuals, families, organizations, and our society is getting worse, not better. Burnout is hurting morale, commitment, and the bottom line

(Miller, 1988). Individuals are harmed because they have lost hope and drive, and they feel inadequate. The family is hurt as individuals bring these feelings home. The organization is hurt from loss of productivity and future progress. Society is hurt because of the total loss of human resource capital and the increased dependency on medical and support services.

McGaffey (1978) reported a decade ago that stress related disorders cost organizations an estimated 17-25 billion dollars a year in lost performance, absenteeism, and health benefits payments.The price tag of stress in the workplace to businesses was estimated at $100 billion in 1987 (Niehouse, 1987) and estimated at $150 billion in 1989, and it still going up (Lahey, 1989). McCullough (1987) reported the financial services industry was estimated to loose $282 million annually from internal theft and theft was increasing 20-40% per year. Burnout is suspected as a major cause.

Bloomfield, Cain, and Jaffe (1975) reported that 230 million prescriptions were being filled with the majority of the drugs were prescribed for fatigue, hypertension, and insomnia - all signs of stress and burnout. Included were five billion dosages of barbiturates, three billion dosages of amphetamines, and five billion dosages of tranquilizers.

Not included in the report were all the non-prescription and illegal drugs taken for excessive work stress.

Stress-related disorders have become "the number one social and health problem in the last decade (Pelletier, 1977)." Pelletier continued by stating 50-80% of all diseases were attributed to psychosomatic or stress origins. Up to 25 million in the United States had hypertension - a very dangerous phenomenon in our culture. Greenberg and Villetutti (1980) reported as high as 70% of all patients treated by doctors in general practice are suffering from stress related disorders. If a report were to come out today, I would venture to suggest the numbers would be much higher. Voluck and Abramson (1987) reported stress-related disability claims against employees represent 11% of all occupational disease cases. There is a developing area of law which deals with claims for damage due to work-related stress (Paine, 1982). If the burnout process would lead to a suicide, a defective project, or decision, widespread damage may be caused and the organizational liability would be much greater (Paine, 1982).

A review of the causes, signs, and symptoms would easily suggest personal costs. However, the effects on the family has not been investigated to any significant degree. It does not take much imagination to conceptualize the

health of a family which has a burned-out member. When one feels exhaustion, frustration, anxiety, withdrawal in regard to the work place, these feelings must come home and affect the interpersonal relationships with family members. Work is so much a part of a professionals life and sense of self that family members would have to deal with the stress. If the professional keeps the stress to oneself, as many do, the family may find, one day, their breadwinner with a heart attack or acute depression.

Burnout is an expensive phenomenon which costs organizations in terms of poor performance, and poor quality of service (Pines et al., 1981). Moracco and McFadden (1980) suggested the effects on human services organizations would include low morale, an atmosphere of cynicism, increased absenteeism, and job turnover. The same could be said for other organizations. Absenteeism and turnover places additional financial and administrative burden on an organization. If burnout led to entrapment, rather than turnover as Dworkin (1985) suggested, matters may be worse. The worker may go through the motions, and may ultimately harm the client and the organization. The costs of preventing an unproductive worker would be much less than the costs of replacing the person or the damage done by a person just filling a space. Gallagher, the comedian, in his routine talks about studies showing that 25% of our working population is incompetent. He continues by

wondering why our society is concerned that we may have a 5% to 10% unemployment rate. What he is worried about is that 15% to 20% that do have jobs. It is frightening to know that organizations, which need the efforts of committed experienced professionals, may be ultimately penalized from not dealing with burnout. Burnout treatment and prevention is an imperative.

For a certain group, burnout may be profitable (Hanson, 1987). In addition to the health industry, professionals are seizing the opportunity to make money as consultants and trainees, despite their lack of expertise (Paine, 1982). Paine (1982) suggested some clinicians see the problem as a lucrative opportunity for long term treatment. Drug companies have a vast, growing market for anti-depressants and tranquilizers, despite the potential for misuse. Sanitariums and spas could have a bonanza on their hands.

The discovery and legitimization of burnout may have positive and negative benefits (Farber, 1983). Although the study of burnout has helped a great number of workers in stressful situations, lazy noncommitted workers may use the burnout concept as a "cop out," other workers may expect themselves to burnout, and mental health people may create unwarranted anxiety in the population. Worrying about stress is stressful itself. How many people would want to

be an air traffic comptroller knowing what they do about the stresses in that job?

Paine (1982) raised the bottom line question on burnout. Despite the presumably high cost of burnout, it is doubtful the concern about burnout will result in the release of resources until the cost of burnout is more closely defined. Organizations should develop procedures to identify and estimate the costs of the various aspects of burnout. She suggests the cost data need to be supplemented with models to tie costs to causal factors that could be changed to reduce costs to the organization. Finally, the techniques of cost-benefit analysis would help decision makers to apply various interventions and strategies. As the awareness and understanding of the costs of burnout increase individual and organizational solutions also may increase.

A nation dedicated to reduction of distress and the promotion of eustress in the workplace would take a giant stride toward reducing the high cost of burnout among workers, managers, and leaders, thereby improving the well-being of our society. Such efforts could provide advances in human technology as to make other advances in the human experience seem like small steps. However, the current denial response by decision makers in our organizations will probably continue, and burn out will

continue to escalate. The resultant costs may be not only enormous, they may be ruinous.

Institutional Advancement

"Institutional advancement" is defined as all efforts and activities to enhance understanding, support, and resources for an institution; said resources come in the form of money, students, clients, faculty, facilities, and influence. To state it simply, institutional advancement is friend and fund raising. At most institutions, institutional advancement includes government relations, alumni relations, corporate and foundation relations, public relations and publications, and development. Institutional advancement is associated primarily with non profit educational institutions, although the process may be found in other non-profit agencies. Institutional advancement is often confused with and used interchangeably with the word "Development." Development is associated with activities which directly or indirectly lead to the raising of funds for the institution.

The Profession

Development, or fund raising, involves cultivating and soliciting of gifts and grants for the institution from individuals and organizations. The principal area of development is the annual fund which attempts to obtain the

monies to cover the difference between the costs to operate an institution and the revenues received through tuitions, fees, and ancillary activities. These funds usually come the donor's regular income. Capital campaigns occur occasionally to obtain funds for facilities, program development, and endowments. These funds usually come from the donor's assets. Planned or deferred giving attempts to obtain major gifts through special instruments, such as wills, annuity trusts, pooled income find, insurance policies, and etc. These gifts are usually realized by the institutions upon events in the future. Specialties may include grant writing, communications, major gift solicitation, and special events, such as auctions, tournaments, balls, and banquets.

Although philanthropy for institutions has been existent since the early days of the church, Development came to unique fruition in the modern American culture. Our habit of giving is unequalled in the world. However, it was not until the turn of the 20th century that fund raising became organized. In 1890, Lyman Pierce and Charles Ward, two YMCA directors, became the first fund raising executives or consultants. In 1914, they helped the University of Pittsburgh raise the unheard sum of $2 million in a capital drive. Between 1920 and 1950 large scaled fundraising was primarily capital campaigns from one and two member offices, but colleges were beginning to set up offices to cultivate

and ask alumni to support their institutions on an annual basis. "It is generally agreed that the establishment, in 1923, of the first special office for development at Northwestern University marked the birth of organized fund raising for American colleges and universities (CASE, 1987, p.1). After the second world war, the federal government began giving grants, and colleges in competing for these grants. The development boom began. Over the next forty years, development offices sprang up like weeds in educational institutions. Some development offices grew from one member to a staff of over 100. Today most non-profit organizations, their trustees, directors, and key administrators recognize to provide their services, they must get into the business of raising funds (Swartz, 1988). "For both public and private institutions, effective advancement activities represent the difference between average and distinguished performance. Indeed, during the decade of the 1980's, advancement activities may even represent, for many institutions, the difference between extinction and survival (CASE, 1987, p.1).". Roger Carver, a president of a direct marketing company stated,

> We are entering a golden age of fundraising, but we must be ready to deal with four major changes: the coming reality of instant communications, the dramatic demographic changes in our society. The effect these two factors have on the way we look at consumers and donors, and the way we manage our human resources (Olcott, 1990, p.6)

Although "professional attention to the advancement of our institutions is a relatively recent phenomenon (CASE, 1987, p.1)." "Fund raising is a legitimate profession with professionals in it (Downes, 1989, p.18)." In fact, Downes declared, "fund raising is the greatest profession in the world. It is the teaching of philanthropy in an environment that desperately needs to develop good will (p.19)." Development may be regarded as a profession in that it provides a service, and development leaders are usually highly educated - although most development professionals received their development training through publications, workshops and seminars, and "flying by the seat of their pants." Development professional organizations have strict codes of ethics and conduct. Advanced degree and certification programs in institutional advancement are now being offered. Although present employers prefer a development officer who has on the job experience over a formal institutional advancement education, a degree may soon become a requirement for leadership positions. Finally, Institutional advancement is a helping profession because it helps organizations obtain needed resources to provide services to others. "The fund raising community should certainly [sic] be included as one of the helping professions, and at great risk of losing themselves, and/or their health, in the responsibility of their jobs (Borelli, 1988, p.20)."

The Development Professional

The development professionals are individuals who are personally dedicated, and committed to their work. They must have a high sense of value, purpose, and self. They possess high expectations and motivations. They must possess organizational skills, interpersonal skills, and have thorough knowledge of their institution and its mission. They must know how to communicate the causes of the institution and enlist donors to subscribe to the institution's vision. Swartz (1988) talks about how far fund raising has come in a relatively short time, but the description made by Carlton Ketchum, a giant in fund raising, twenty-five years ago of the consummate fund raiser is still true today. Carlton stated,

> A campaigner must be bold, but modest, aggressive but tactful, confident but prudent, alert without presenting the image of over-eagerness. He must be resourceful, far-seeing, discriminating, and wise. He must make a fine physical appearance and convey the impression of being both a wonderful fellow to know and be with and a man of dignity, poise, and judgment - a true conservative who is, at the same time, full of originality and invention. He must carry instant appeal to old and young, man and woman, great and small. All these things a campaigner must be. So far no one has made it on all counts (Swartz, 1988, p.40.).

Swartz continued by suggesting that even this great person has additional required characteristics. "The person had better know a great deal about strategic planning, long range planning, cost control, computer technology, and direct mail, and volunteers (p.40)."

Gonser, Gerber, Tinker and Stuhr (1991) suggested the essentials for a successful development officer included integrity, enthusiasm for the institution, high personal standards, initiative, personal energy and endurance, versatile personality, sense of time and appropriateness, action orientation, and problem solving ability. They believed if one lacked one or two of these characteristics, the individual had limited potential for success. They stated ten areas of skills and knowledge essential to a development officer are the abilities to:

1. Direct all phases of a comprehensive development program.
2. Accept responsibility.
3. Plan, prepare, and anticipate.
4. Understand why donors give.
5. Be a partner with the head of the institution.
6. work with volunteers.
7. live up to schedule.
8. Communicate.
9. Numerate as well as literate.
10. Personally cultivate and solicit major gifts (Gonzer, Gerber, Tinker, Stuhr, 1991, p2-4).

A talented and energetic development officer is critical to a successful advancement program (Smith, 1986). A good bright development officer will immerse himself in the institution and learn it well, and inspire loyalty and leadership among his or her people (Dingfelder, 1988).

Given the characteristics of the burnout prone individual mentioned earlier in this paper, it is probable that development officers are very vulnerable to burnout.

The profession carries very, very high expectations and the individual assumes these expectations as personal responsibilities. Institutional advancement is a very demanding profession in which very few people could meet all the requirements without being stressed.

"Good fund raising people are hard to find. (Lane, Lewis, & New, 1989, p14.)" Development officers with deep dedication, broad and extensive experience, and well-honed talents and skills specially suited to advancement will be in great demand (Gonser, Gerber, Tinker, Stuhr, 1991). Lane and others (1989) conducted a study eighteen corporate and foundation grantmakers, who provide substantial funding for fundraising to a large number of institutions. Through interviews of the above and 35 other grantmakers, seekers, and consultants, they found a major concern was the alarming lack of qualified fund raising professionals. The number of qualified fund raising professionals has not increased as fast as demand. "Increasing the pool of qualified fund raisers is a high priority for at least one grantmaker who wants to enhance non-profits' fund raising capacity (Lane et al., 1989, p 13)." If this is the case, and it is, many individuals may be not be able to meet the high expectations and demands of their organizations and thus, be headed for burnout.

The Workplace

To make matters worse, the field is not as well defined as other activities in an institution. The goal may be to raise resources, but usually very little guidance and support is given on how and where to obtain those resource. Development offices, at times, seem to have insurmountable goals and tasks which make the job resemble a form of a labor camp (Dalzell, 1988). Raising money is a chronic problem. The goals are always raised. Success is unclear because the pressures never let up to find new resources. "The chronic pressures to raise more and more money is our eternal reality. (Mengerink, 1990, p.36). "Development professionals are always on the "firing line" and must be constantly aware of public policies and perceptions (Swartz, 1988). Reverend Peter J. Gomes, Plummer Professor of Christian morals for the Memorial Church of Harvard University, addressed development officers by saying:

> You're dong a fine job nobody else wants to do...You have to spend time with people who, under normal circumstances, you'd have nothing to do with at all. They're uninteresting, not very bright, and hold reactionary views on a host of subjects. Their only virtue is they're rich (Special report, 1988, p56).

Swartz (1988) suggested "In recent years, we have witnessed tremendous changes in our field, but the biggest, I believe, is today's accelerated pace of change (p.88)." Swartz continued by suggesting Development is a full time job just trying to keep abreast with new techniques and technology, shifting public perceptions, new tax laws,

government trends and attitudes, the stock market, and changes on campus. Plus with impossible deadlines for the regular day to day activities, no one in development has the time or facilities to give all the pressing issues proper attention.

"These are not easy times for the fund raiser. The competition is stiff, the market unpredictable, and revised tax laws put even more pressure on those who would like to number among their best friends generous philanthropists (Borelli, 1988, p.20)." "There is much more intense competition for the philanthropic dollar (Swartz, 1988, p.38)." Over the past twenty years, institutional advancement goals have expanded sharply. The annual fund requirements have risen dramatically to the point that institutions must raise, annually, more money to cover their expanding deficits than they raised in multi-year capital campaigns a decade earlier. Capital campaigns have set all time records. In fact, Stanford University set the landmark goal of one billion dollars for its current campaign. "As goals reach new heights, so do the pressures on the development office... part of the competitiveness is 'one upmanship' between institutions (McMillen, 1988, p A27)."

At the same time, the government, under siege from exorbitant budget deficits, is reducing substantially their grants to institutions, public and private. Projected

deficits approaching $200 billion will place current funding in jeopardy - much less provide additional funding. The government can't give money away when it is being pressured to find new revenues without raising taxes.

Currently, fundraising has become so intensely competitive, that institutions are fighting one another for a share of the philanthropic pie (Downes, 1989). Development professionals have found they must be more aggressive and creative in seeking alternative sources of funding in addition to maintaining their traditional fund raising programs. Being the eternal optimist that a fund raiser must be, Swartz (1988) stated

> The current climate , thanks to tax needs, Jim and Tammy (the television evangelists who defrauded millions of dollars from their donors), the Iran-Contra affair, and etc. might be characterized as cloudy, even stormy. But, even with the negative things happening, these most challenging times present us with tremendous opportunities (p.37-38).

Spoken like a true development professional! However, Goodwin (1988) reminded development professionals,

> The greatest threat to any of us in development is simply the problem of becoming so competitive and working so intensely that we are susceptible to burnout...In a high intensity, high action, make-a-major-decision-a-day profession like ours, burnout is real threat (p.38).

From my many years observing and participating in development, I can attest that most work settings for institutional advancement are burnout prone. The

stereotypic workplace would exhibit most of the characteristics described earlier in this paper which create excessive stress, a sense of powerlessness, helplessness, and a lack of control. The structure of most workplaces for development professionals, are very stressful with sometimes unrealistically high expectations, increasing demands, little support, with little or no control over goals, policies, or working conditions. The majority of the advancement offices are characterized by a centralized assembly line of organization (Smith, 1986). In colleges, universities, and schools, administration is bureaucratic and the development professional experiences objective overload with the loss of autonomy and control. Development offices are customarily understaffed, overloaded with tasks, and under equipped. There is an absence of positive feedback and support. Although development people create recognition and awards for "outsiders" in the fund raising process, fund raisers, themselves, receive no recognition, reward or celebration for their exceptional efforts. Salaries in development offices have stayed slightly ahead of inflation since the beginning of the 1980's, but have not kept pace with the increases of other white collar salaries (Turk, 1986). Recent technology has vastly expanded the information and processing capabilities of an office, but expectations on the staff have increased relative to the technology, and not in consideration of the staff's

limitations. Although fund raising is a people oriented process, the workplace has developed a "loss of the personal element from the overemphasis of technology (Gurin, 1988, p.37)." Accordingly, there is a widening gap between expectation and performance.

Pressure is constant in the development office. Borelli (1988) described

> The constant 'pressure of the last minute deadline rush' produces a stress which has a powerful effect on our behavior. At first, the adrenalin rush improves our performance, and although we can, at times, turn down the volume, the picture remains hot and bright with activity, and the systems risks burnout (p.20).

It is not unusual for the advancement professional to feel alienation, not only from difficult obnoxious prospects, but also other groups in the organization. Development is unusually regarded as a necessary evil in the organization. Development professionals are not accepted as part of the service providers who consider themselves the most important element of the institution. They are not accepted as part of administration. Development professionals are not regarded as leadership. Probably, only the president or head of the institution respects and appreciates the development professional, because his or her own job depends on the success of the development professional. The other jobs are probably dependent on the work of the advancement professional, but the workers in those jobs do not recognize it. I believe institutional

advancement professionals are mostly seen as laborers in fancy suits, rather than as respected professionals critical to the institution's well-being. Swartz (1988) stated the academic communities of institutions have yet to learn the magnitude and importance of philanthropy -"we can't sit back and wait until the academic community decides what we are really about (p.37)." Downes (1989) commented that development professionals received a lot of hard knocks from people who don't understand and constantly challenge with false and subjective assumptions. Lane and others (1989) warned that institutions are guilty of the

> Failure to make the fundraiser a recognized part of the organizations management team. Often, he or she is isolated from the board and other staff. This failure can result in low pay, lack of recognition, and other job stress, leading to high job turnover (p.13).

Institutional advancement, which is a people oriented profession, can be a very lonely occupation, and isolation may lead to burnout.

Burnout in Development

"There seems to be a 'burn-out' factor - the effective fund raising manager's performance begins to decline (Lane et al., 1989, p.14)." Mengerink (1990) acknowledged stress on the job another way, "It is not the things that happen to us in fund raising, but our perceptions, beliefs, and what we tell ourselves about what happens to us cause us emotional distress (p.37)." He went on to suggest some

fundraisers are burned out "just a few degrees crisper than fried bacon (p.35)." Goodwin (1988) warned other development officers that "without daily avoidance steps, each of us can catch a case of burnout as easily as we catch a cold... once upon us, it is very difficult to shake and productivity goes to an all point low (p.38)."

Dinfelder (1988) wrote about the three stages of a Vice President for Development. In the honeymoon stage, the individual can do no wrong, but the person is tempted to move too quickly without getting to know the internal and external players. The middles years are characterized by the individual being careful not to over organize and remembering plans must be fair, clear, and honest. The final stage reflects a flat or declining trend in funds raised. It is a good fund raising record, but does not meet expectations. The individual has developed a feeling of not being, appreciated, understood, or adequately compensated. At the end, the person and the institution are looking for a new post or person. "The institution usually looses at this stage - staff become demoralized, with threats of deflections, fund raising activities become confused or diminished, and the reputation of the development office begins to sink (Dingfelder, 1988, p.23)." Dalzell (1988) observed that burnout affects young development

professionals, as well as those who have been in the profession for many years.

How may a development professional tell if he or she is burning out? Mengerink (1990) provided "twelve warning signs of fund raiser burnout (p.37)."

1. For emotional protection, you find yourself becoming more and more detached.

2. You become impatient with others.

3. You find yourself projecting the blame of your problems on to others, e.g. campaign solicitors, your boss, board members, your staff.

4. You begin to perform your duties mechanically.

5. You begin making poor judgments, therefore, poor decisions.

6. You start stereotyping others since stereotyping relieves you of the responsibility of having to think, in depth, about the other person.

7. You reduce the amount of time spent interacting with volunteers and staff. When you do interact, you treat others coldly and impersonally. You lose concern for others.

8. You vent your personal rage on inappropriate others.

9. You experience psychosomatic symptoms, such as headaches, backaches, insomnia, etc.

10. You develop a sense of omnipotence, e.g., no one else can do this job but me.

11. You feel that no one appreciates you.

12. You become depressed (p.37).

Although the above symptoms are classic signs of burnout, and I have observed these symptoms among

development professionals, there has been no empirical data collected to support that these symptoms and burnout exist in development professionals.

However, there is evidence as illustrated in other professions that stress and burnout may cause turnover (Shaw, 1980). Carbone (1987) sent a survey to 500 fundraisers from the 5,000 members of The Council for the Advancement and support of education. 204 responded. He found that only 16% had been in their current position for more than five years. "Longevity in development positions is becoming rare - at great peril to the success of many institutions (Gonser, Gerber, Tinker and Stuhr, 1990, p.2)." Turnover has become a major problem because development officers are leaving their positions with alarming frequency (Lane et al., 1989; Gonser, Gerber, Tinker, Stuhr, 1990).

Thomas (1987) mailed 1744 questionaires to executives in higher education administration. He received 814 usable responses. He found the turnover rate in advancement offices was 17% annually, 50% more than positions in other areas of higher education. More than half of the employees who had left had been on the job less than five years. It appeared institutions were losing good people after they had been trained.

Blum (1989) reported on a study of 34,500 administrators in U.S. colleges. The average turnover rate

was 24%, but for directors of annual giving and directors of planned giving, the turnover rate was an astounding 58% per year - twice the average. The amount of annual turnover among development officers may be a matter of great concern but not many institutions are coming to terms with the problem. I have heard several upper level development officers brush the phenomenon aside with a comment that the departing officers probably moved up the advancement ladder. In reality, according to Thomas (1987), only one in five left for a better position. Three out of five left educational fund raising or left for personal reasons. "Marriages between development officers and institutions don't last like they used to. Rapid turnover is posing a greater threat to fund raising efforts than overbearing in-laws pose to a marriage (Burdette, 1987)."

When the Council for the Advancement and support of Education dedicated their October, 1987 issue of CASE Currents to the problem of turnover, I found it very interesting the subjects included. Even more important, I thought, were the subjects not included. There was a survey report on turnover (Thomas, 1987), an article on how to fight turnover by hiring right in the first place (Burdett, 1987), and interviews of seven "old pro's," who had been on the job a long time, telling what has kept them in development. However, an interview with an individual who had left development was not included. Didn't the

institution think this person was capable, if not the best candidate, when the individual was hired? Interviews of younger professionals were absent from the issue There was not an article about institutional responsibility for reducing turnover among those capable people already on the job. One article stated if the institution wanted to reduce turnover, they needed to decide what they wanted, then hire carefully (Burdette,1987). After they are hired, what the institution should do to reduce turnover was not mentioned. The October issue totally overlooked the possibility that stress and burnout could be a cause of turnover. To quote Borelli (1988), "the stress that a fundraiser accumulates at the very least, alter ones performance. At its worst, it can kill (p.20)."

To establish longevity, Breslow (1988) suggested the development professional must become innovative and courageous to outpace the competition and to overcome the boredom of sameness year in and year out. Mengerink (1990) provided a list of valuable tips to avoid burnout.

> Stay in the present moment and avoiding chronic anticipation... Change a problem from "what is the matter with me" to "who is the matter with me" and developing a strategy... Clearly define roles and expectations... Don't fly too close to the sun - one can't always be a white knight. Don't be disappointed if miracles don't always happen. Remember one can't always do, what one can sometimes do... Refuse to recycle negative thoughts or feelings... Develop a healthy realism about one's skills and get as much training as possible... Set financial goals which are realistic and attainable ...Learn how to integrate and

> keep track of a great deal of information.Write everything down. Prioritize one's list. Delegate whenever possible... Become an active member of a good fund raising professional organization... Insist on periods of solitude for yourself... Accept the fact that rejection is unpleasant but temporary and that each rejection moves us closer to the goal...Develop a good support system... Practice being a team player... Learn to say "no," and set limits on oneself... Make it easy for one's boss to support... and practice acceptance (p.35-37).

Gonser, Gerber, Tinker, Stuhr (1990) listed eight elements critical to reducing staff turnover in school which applies to all institutions with development programs,

1. A clear commitment to the concepts of development.
2. Clarity of goals and expectations for development.
3. Careful recruitment and selection of development staff.
4. Homogeneous relationships between head, chief development officer, and board.
5. Schoolwide support of development effort.
6. Development officer as teacher.
7. Competence to do job - realistic expectations.
8. Adequate compensation - must adequately reward and recognize staff (p.1-3).

It is predicted that "institutions will depend more on inhouse talent. CEO's think this is economically sound (Borelli, 1988, p32)." However, it will be difficult if the majority of development officers leave after a brief stay. It will be critically important that well trained, culturally knowledgeable, dedicated development professionals not leave. It will be too costly for the

institution not only in lost dollars for searching and training a replacement, but also not fully realizing the full fund raising potential of a seasoned, energetic professional who knows the constituency.

The Future

"If only organizations -large and small - can be more aware of the problem, they could make resources available to enable personnel to take action before it is too late (Kew, 1985, p6)." At the present time, I believe institutions think turnover is the problem, when in reality it is a symptom of a bigger problem. Given all the other descriptions, it seems burnout may be the disease, but there is not yet any research literatutre available on burnout in fund raising. We can only suppose because we do not have any significant data to support our beliefs. Empirical data on burnout in development is still lacking. When institutions are presented research describing the extent of burnout in the profession, they may release the needed resources to correct the problem, retain knowledgeable, dedicated development professional in their fold, and maximize their fund raising capabilities. Burnout exists in Institutional advancement. To what degree? We don't know yet, but it is important to find the answer - institution's futures may depend on it.

Closing

We live in a complex world in which we are not only having to deal with change, but the accelerating rate of change. Consequently, our society finds itself under the threat of burnout and the cost of the phenomenon is high and rising.

Stress and burnout have become everyday terms in our population. Although we may not fully understand the vast dimensions, we have a general idea what the problems are. Stress has become an accepted fact. Burnout, on the other hand, has been regarded as pop psychology by many. Whether or not it is a fad, the illness and devastating effects of a unique phenomenon are real. Through thousands of articles and numerous research projects, it has to be recognized that burnout does exist and is a major threat to the well being of individuals, organizations, and our society.

Although there are many definitions of burnout due to its complex, multidimensional nature, we do know it is a stress response in the workplace. It takes an energetic, committed, worker, usually a professional, and through the interactions of the characteristics of the person, the organization, the profession, and society, create an emotionally exhausted, frustrated, alienated, withdrawn individual who just doesn't care anymore about one's work. Burnout is giving up when performance does not meet

expectations. It is the development of a feeling of hopelessness, inadequacy, helplessness, and lack of control.

The causes and symptoms of burnout may be within the person, the organization, the profession, or society - usually a combination of these sources. Burnout is treatable and preventable with interventions possible at all source levels, although there is no single "silver bullet."

The cost of burnout is not yet fully determined. We do know from partial survey that it is costing hundreds of billions of dollars and rising. Until organizations realize the costs of burnout in relationship to costs of interventions, they will be reluctant to release the resources to prevent the syndrome.

Over the past fifteen years, burnout has been extensively researched. However, most of the research has been exploratory and descriptive. We have found that the burnout threat is more extensive than earlier thought. It has been documented in the fields of education, medicine, dentistry, social services, law, law enforcement, ministry, accounting, and business, and is suspected in many other work settings. Review of the research literature suggests a need to explore burnout in previously not investigated work settings, a need for research about the relationships of stressors and burnout, and the costs which relate to each.

Research is needed to determine the effectiveness and costs of coping strategies and interventions.

In Institutional advancement, burnout has been recognized but not researched. Given the potentially devastating effect burnout may have on development professionals and the institutions which depend on these professionals for their survival, empirical data on burnout within Institutional advancement is critical. The need for study is imperative.

It is hoped in the next decade, not only will burnout will be recognized and defined universally, but also research will have provided society, organizations, and individuals with successful cost-effective intervention programs that focus on identification and prevention of burnout, and human resource management. Time will tell.

Gomez (Special Report, 1988), in closing, said, "... In the next life, I wish you peace, rest, and harmony and the freedom from ever having to ask anyone for anything again (p.64)."

Finally, the plight of the burnout can be appreciated through a passage in Margery William's The Velveteen Rabbit (1975). In the scene the children are gone, and two of the stuffed toys are talking in the nursery. The new, young,

favored velveteen rabbit asks the worn, old skin horse who obviously has been around a long time,

> "What is real and does it hurt to be real?"
>
> "Sometimes," said the old skin horse, for he was always very truthful; "when you are real you don't mind being hurt."
>
> "Does it happen all at once like being wound up? Or bit by bit?"
>
> "It doesn't happen all at once," replied the skin horse. "You become. That's why it doesn't happen often to people who break easily, or have sharp edges, or who have to be carefully kept."
>
> "By the time you are real most of your hair has been loved off, your eyes drop out, you get loose in the joints and very shabby. But, these things don't matter at all for once you are real you can't be ugly, except to people who don't understand (p. 16-17)."

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